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A SYMPOSIUM ON STUTTERING

ROBERT WEST
University of Wisconsin

THE annual meeting of the American Society for the Study of Disorders of Speech, held last December, was entirely devoted to a symposium on stuttering (stammering), with particular reference to methods of treatment. Every person in the United States who was known by the president of the Society to have had experience in this field was asked to contribute to this symposium. This discussion was the beginning of an intensive project undertaken by the Society to improve the methods employed in the therapy of stuttering.

The speakers on this symposium fall somewhat logically into groups or schools of thought, divided as to their conceptions of the aetiology of stuttering and as to their methods of treatment.

THE SCHOOL OF SENSORY IMAGERY

Many of the speakers seek to relieve the symptoms of stuttering by improving the patient's imagery of essential speech factors, on the theory that some lack in the sensory-associative processes prevents the delicate coordinations necessary for speech. The authorities in this imagery school are by no means agreed as to what type of imagery is defective, but nevertheless all of them insist upon training calculated to intensify and facilitate the patient's mental picturization of what is going on while he speaks. Walter B. Swift, a Boston physician, is a proponent of the theory that stuttering is due to faulty visual imagery. He tells us that early in his research he began to suspect the cuneus as the seat of the stutterer's trouble. He reports the investigations with many stutterers. With these subjects he found as follows:

"The normal visual process which accompanies speech was temporarily or permanently diminished. In some cases, it was less severe than in others, as some cases had it only while the stammering was going on. This I termed a temporary visual diminution. In other cases which were more severe, there was no visualization in the mental makeup at all, either while speaking or while silent. Perhaps a little more exact definition of what visual lack is, should be brought forward. By visual lack, I mean that the mental picture of the object for which the word stands, is either slightly or temporarily diminished or lacking altogether. I do not mean by this definition to include any other imagery. For example if a teacher writes *tree* on the blackboard, I do not mean for one to picture the blackboard with the word *tree* on it, but what I mean by visualization is to reproduce the picture of the tree itself, or as I have said, the object for which the word stands. I would also include in my definition the creation of pictures. Briefly then, the lack which I discovered was a diminution of the function to visualize."

M. Claudia Williams, Director of Speech Correction of the Public Schools, Cleveland, O., Alice Liljegren, Supervisor of Speech Correction, Omaha (Neb.) Public Schools, and Jennie Hedrick, Principal of the Washington (D.C.) School for the Correction of Defects of Speech, all credit this working theory of Dr. Swift's as the fundamental basis for their methods. In their papers they tell of the results gained by methods calculated to increase the power of visualization.

A Denver (Colo.) physician, Dr. C. S. Bluemel, approaches the problem also from the sensory-associative side. Instead, however, of centering his attention upon the visual areas, he is concerned about what appears to him to be a type of auditory amnesia.

"My own feeling in the matter," says Dr. Bleumel, "is that stammering is an impediment in thought and not primarily a speech disorder. The disability manifests itself in speech because the speech is patterned upon the thought. The thought disturbance, as I view it, is an inability to think the words clearly in the mind. I first explained this, a number of years ago as a transient auditory amnesia, my conception of the matter being that the stammerer momentarily lost his mental images of words because his mental imagery was faint or dim. His images might be compared to shad-

ows upon the ground in moonlight, while normal images would be comparable to the stronger shadows in sunlight. This faint imagery, it seemed, could not be readily recalled to motivate the speech.

"My present conception of the mechanism is a little different, though the theory is not substantially changed. I believe that the verbal imagery momentarily drops out of the stream of consciousness, and that this loss of imagery blocks the stammerer's speech. In the present discussion it therefore makes little difference whether the original imagery is weak or strong; the essential fact is that the stammerer cannot speak without the verbal thought.

"The speech-block or thought-block which I have just described represents to my mind the uncomplicated mental process in stammering. The process does not remain uncomplicated, however, when the stammerer develops fear of particular words, for he then begins to look for synonyms and circumlocutions, and if there is no ready escape, he may go into a tail-spin of confusion. For the moment, at least, all verbal thought is obliterated. Still other complications occur to disturb the mental processes of speech. But there is no occasion to elaborate further; enough has been said to illustrate my theory that stammering is an impediment of thought and not a speech disorder.

"The stammerer is admonished to give his whole attention to mental speech. He is taught to regard the act of speaking as the process of thinking aloud, and when speaking he is urged to listen quietly for his thoughts. He is told to make no attempt to control the organs of speech, but to let the mind broadcast to the mouth, and to permit the speech to produce itself.

"Much of the pupil's training consists in mental drill. He is at first unable to desist from his struggle with speech, and he is therefore trained to relinquish his attempt at speech altogether and to come to a halt when the teacher signals with a snap of a castanet. A short period of silence then ensues, during which the stammerer regains his composure. When he appears thoroughly tranquilized he is given the signal to proceed—a light tap of the castanet. There is much rigorous drill of this nature, and the signals or commands are retained in the speech work till the pupil is able to eliminate his physical stammering, and to speak quietly with his attention upon his thought."

Still another variant of the imagery theory is that propounded by the Chicago laryngologist, Dr. Elmer Kenyon, who centers his attention not upon visual or auditory associative processes but upon kinaesthetic imagery and its correlation with the motor patterns for speech. Dr. Kenyon states his case thus:

"The bases of my own conception of treatment of stammering go back to G. Hudson Makuen and Herman Gutzmann, but especially to Makuen. Dr. Makuen's stammerers were taught conscious active chest control, coupled with consciously directed production of each elemental sound of speech. Accompanying this training in conscious control of the speech mechanism, Dr. Makuen carried on a definite psychologic teaching that constituted an important and intelligent forerunner of present day conception.

"The changing of the psychologic control that insures certain understanding of how to produce speech consciously and normally, requires much detailed education and training. Insofar as possible, vagueness of understanding of physiology and method is eliminated. Modern psycho-physiology is essential. Through the employment of models, drawings, and description, the stammerer is first caused to understand his speech mechanism and its manner of action. He is taught to conceive of it as a machine of talking, the action of which he is gradually to learn to consciously control. Principles as to psychologic management of the mechanisms are gradually developed. Since control of the mechanism varies with each individual sound, each must be taken up in detail, from the standpoint of understanding and controlling the production of that particular sound. Combinations in great number are carefully practiced. Some years ago, when, after much thoughtful attention to the problem, I had finally conceived exactly how the movement of the vocal cords could be definitely brought under conscious control of the individual, I felt that at last I had found a real key to the stammerer's problem. Variation in the details of education and training are determined in accordance with the age and intelligence of the particular stammerer.

"Early in the period of training, the effort at conscious control is applied to the act of talking. Gradually this consciously controlled effort is developed until speech production has become normally smooth, excellent in quality, and attended with little or no hesitation. In order not to be misunderstood, I will state that

'suggestion' has as little part in this training as it does in the teaching of proper management of the body in learning to swim. Much practice, as well as constant controlled talking is insisted on. Skill in controlled effort is developed as far as the mental capability and the persistence of the stammerer will allow. His mind is fixed on the visualization of the psychophysiologic requirements, as already painstakingly developed, of controlled talking.

Thus is gradually built up an entirely new and thoroughly intelligent attitude towards speech production. Involved in this new conception are inculcated ideas of calmness, slowness and self-reliance. He is taught that only by such constant and efficient control of his social stability and of his speech mechanism that all stammering is eliminated, can he hope to rebuild the efficiency of that part of the brain on which smooth automatic speech production ordinarily depends, the normal action of which he was deprived of by his stammering."

Mary Summers Steel, of the Graduate School of Medicine of the University of Pennsylvania, also sponsors the theory of her teacher and predecessor, the late Dr. G. Hudson Makuen, from whom Dr. Kenyon borrowed much of his theory and method.

THE PSYCHOTHERAPISTS

Turning now from the sensory-imagery school we come to a large group of workers who base stuttering largely upon poor mental hygiene. These authorities may be arranged in a series on the basis of the degree to which psycho-analytic technic is employed to study and treat the case of stuttering. Mental hygiene may be of any shade from the robins-egg blue of the variety employed by any sympathetic and intelligent teacher to the deep emerald green of the profoundest Freudian.

An excellent example of the robins-egg end of the series was the paper of Miss Eudora Estabrook, Director of Speech Correction of the Grand Rapids (Mich.) Public Schools. She makes the following clean-cut statement of her position:

"Conditions conducive to a feeling of well-being, indicating normal muscular tensions in the viscera, are therapeutic. The speech teacher therefore assists in finding opportunities for happy activity both in class and in the child's environment. She attempts to give the child a feeling of 'at-homeness' in all of his social contacts. A thorough understanding of the child's capacities is neces-

sary, discovered by study of his school records, mental and educational tests. The speech teachers are all trained testers. In class the child is provided with opportunities for practice in using speech under the above mentioned relaxing conditions; conversation, reading, recitation, story and news telling are used, and much poetry. The child is given informal posture and relaxation exercises, is shown his needs and is encouraged to seek wholesome self-expression and normal social relationships."

Mabel Farrington Gifford of the California State Department of Education should perhaps be mentioned next in our series. She introduces the "subconscious emotional memories."

"It must be fully understood," says Mrs. Gifford, "that, according to my theory, the causes of these nervous speech disorders are psychologic and that the spasmodic manifestation of the speech organs is only the external symptom of the deep-seated mental conflict. It has now been definitely established that severe shocks and emotional conflicts in very early childhood remain as subconscious memories for many years, and may continue to disturb the speech function, which in itself is perfect, until such time as corrective measures are applied. We can more easily understand the relation between stuttering and the subconscious emotional memories and conflicts when we consider that every normal speech reflects the momentary emotional state of mind. Embarrassment causes a hesitating reluctant speech, excitement an increase in the tempo, indifference a certain monotony, and so on through the various moods.

"I have come to believe and practice along the lines that however important speech drills and relaxation exercises are, such therapy is insufficient to effect a cure for stammerers."

James Sonnett Green, M. D., of the National Hospital for Speech Disorders, New York City, takes into account all that Gifford and Estabrook have mentioned, but stresses in addition neuropathic heredity. Speaking of stuttering he says:

"From all indications it is primarily psychologic rather than biologic. By it being psychologic, I mean factors of training—the likes and dislikes, the bents, slants and attitudes, the character that we bring as individuals to our daily actions and associations. The stutterer cannot directly inherit stuttering speech but without doubt inherits his neuropathic constitution, and living in tense sur-

roundings almost anything is liable to start his stuttering. Most of our case histories show nervous traits in the patient, in the parents, and other members of the family."

The position taken by Frederick W. Brown of the National Committee of Mental Hygiene is not greatly different from that of Dr. Greene. He stresses more than others above mentioned the need for "personality integration."

"To those of us who would make use of the best that medical science and practise together with psychological experimentation, observation and theorization have to offer, the solution of the problem of stuttering appears to lie in the direction of the application of the principles of physical and mental hygiene to the treatment of the stutterer as a personality requiring integration which will enable him to adjust adequately, through speech, to social situations. Research is indicated along lines which will discover the cause or causes of disintegration and reliable methods of reintegration. A further indication is the training of teachers in the principles of physical and mental hygiene and in methods of applying them under the direction of physicians trained and experienced in the handling of personality and behavior disorders. The methods used may be either direct or indirect, but without the application of these principles I can see no solution to the problem of stuttering."

The series in this mental hygiene school is completed by three physicians who may clearly be classed as psychoanalysts, Stivers, Blanton, and Coriat. The first of these, Dr. Charles G. Stivers of Los Angeles, takes a conservative position in his analyses avoiding the extreme Freudian position. He says:

"Speech, which is an oral manifestation of the desire for social intercourse, develops from crying, slowly in a normal child and painfully and jerkily in the neurotic, hypersensitive child, by whom every social situation, owing to his memory of repeated failures, is met with fear of the contact. Fear grows into a sense of inferiority and shyness. The resultant hesitation and escape develops a vacillation of the social instrument of expression, which is speech, whether gestured, written or oral, and this vacillation may manifest itself in oral stammering."

Dr. Smiley Blanton of Vassar, Poughkeepsie, N. Y., is the first in our series to introduce the factor of abnormal oral eroticism as

an explanation of the stutterer's spasms. "There is no dividing line," he says, "between the frank stutterer who shows all the typical symptoms of blocking and hesitation and the person who is nervous, embarrassed and timid when the social situation calls for speech. There are many such persons who find it difficult to recite. They often cover up their embarrassment by a refusal to speak. Such refusal is not infrequently interpreted by the teacher as sullenness, or obstinacy. Probably ten per cent of students in high school and college suffer from feelings of inadequacy and embarrassment which makes it difficult for them to recite. These students do not show the usual signs of spasms in speech organs but they suffer from the same inhibitions of speech as the stutterer does.

"Psychoanalysis has made a valuable contribution to the cause and treatment of stuttering The first stage of the love life of the child is the oral erotic stage in which the child not only uses the mouth to get nourishment, but also to get sexual pleasure of the infantile type. The mouth region is highly charged with emotion, and sounds are made partly because of the pleasure they give through the stimulation of the vocal organs. This oral erotic stage passes normally. Sometimes, however, the child remains fixed in this stage and also his love energy is centered upon himself and he becomes narcissistic. It is this narcissism which gives rise to timidity and self-consciousness."

Dr. Isador H. Coriat of Boston emphasizes the factor of oral eroticism even more than does Dr. Blanton and also minimizes other conditions that both Blanton and Stivers would regard as important contributary factors. Dr. Coriat's position is well stated in the following paragraph:

"When a stammerer attempts to talk, the mouth movements are the persistence into maturity of the original sucking and biting lip-nipple activities of infancy. In this connection it is also significant that the labials (p, b, m) which are usually the most difficult sounds for stammerers to enunciate, are also among the earliest sounds made by children. The physiological lip movements utilized to produce these sounds are the same movements employed in nursing at the mother's breast or in sucking at the rubber nipple of the nursing bottle. The stammerer, therefore, in the course of his development, has not successfully overcome this early nursing phase, but remains fixed at this infantile stage of oral tendency

which inflexibly binds the individual to the sucking and biting period of infantile oral erotic gratification. Excessive mouth erotism, therefore, is not only at the basis of all stammering, but the mouth has become the principal and all-powerful organ of the earlier nursing pleasures which are gratified through the oral discharge into speech. There can be noted in addition to the frequent sucking movements with the lips and the excessive salivacation during the paroxysm of stammering, other accompaniments such as deep breathing, rapid heart beat, yawning, all followed by a feeling of relaxation after the enunciation of the difficult word. There is here observed an actual reproduction in adult life of the relation of the infant to the nipple, that is, a gratification of the oral erotic zone in pleasure sucking, reenacted and reanimated in maturity. In fact, under these conditions, the stammering becomes sort of a compulsive-repetition of the very primitive and early nursing activities. The oral libido is fixed on the symptom of the speech defect and becomes therefore, a psycho-physiological manifestation of the oral nursing stage."

THE PEDAGOGUES

The educational group constitutes the next school of workers in the field of the study and treatment of stuttering. There are many who maintain that the handling of the stutterer is definitely in the province of the physician; there are many also who maintain that it is definitely an educational problem. This question of province was not directly debated at any point in the symposium; but a number of the speakers stressed the advantages of treating stuttering by educational procedures.

One of the most interesting experiments in the educational approach to the problem was presented at the symposium by Prof. H. J. Heltman of Syracuse University. In this experiment therapy was not the only objective; a prophylactic environment was also sought for. Prof. Heltman says:

"In 1924 six primary grade teachers from one of the schools in Syracuse were organized into a class for training in principles and practise of speech reeducation. A clinic was established in the school to which these teachers brought the speech defective children from their own grades. Here these teachers were instructed in methods of correction. From this small beginning the work has grown until at present it embraces all the teachers of elementary

grades in Binghamton and Geneva, and of primary grades in Syracuse and Utica.

"Without making any claims as to the efficiency of the method it should be said that both in Binghamton and Syracuse the course was put in as a requirement for all teachers, after a number had taken it voluntarily. It was observable that children coming through grades of teachers who had taken the courses were emerging without their stuttering.

"Before giving the details of the several projects, let us look for a moment at the growing socialization of the processes for meeting human needs through the schools. Modern educational philosophy comprehends the public school as the appropriate channel through which to deal with any deviation, in considerable numbers, from the normal. This applies to the individual as well as to the group. Personal hygiene, health, special disabilities, such as blindness, deafness, cripple, are commonly recognized as problems within the province of the field of education. The reasons for this point of view are not hard to find. The purpose of education is to train the individual, so that he may adjust himself, as far as possible, to his environment. For many very obvious reasons, unless the problems of these deviations from normal are met through the schools they will not be met at all. Hence, it is plain, from the hundreds of thousands of stutterers in this country that the problem here can never be adequately dealt with, except through the schools.

"From the environmental point of view, the school is fairly adequate. Here the child is under the direction of a person usually equipped to deal effectively with those environmental factors influencing pupil development, several hours a day, five days a week, and for a considerable part of the year. This contact is more intimate, sympathetic, and constructive than that of most homes from which the children come, since it is the recognized responsibility of the teacher to be efficient in these contacts. While it is admitted that no stutterer can fully recover till he learns to adjust himself to his environment as he finds it; still the teacher can maintain in the school an atmosphere conducive to normal oral self-expression."

Dr. Elizabeth A. McDowell of Teachers' College, Columbia, gives us the point of view of one who is training teachers of speech correction. Dr. McDowell enunciates the objectives that she would

incorporate into her methods of handling the stutterer as follows:

"First, we emphasize the recognition of the habit to be acquired by the person who must acquire it.

"Second, we apply many exercises and activities for setting up connections. Among the most useful have been reproductions of the records of the speaker's voice and the noting of the symptoms which are desired and those which are not.

"The third step is a more or less hit-or-miss scheme for experimenting on his own part with exercises and schemes for gaining success in acquiring the desired speech reaction. These must be very simple at first. We arrange them into a hierarchy of stimuli or speech exercises according to their frequencies of success. One exercise is universally successful, that is speaking isolated syllables in unison with the instructor who is employing an easy, well-modulated voice.

"Fourth is providing opportunities for repeating the reactions and attaching rewards and satisfactions to each successful effort.

"The fifth objective is the association of the desired reaction with situations in which it must be used.

"Sixth, directing of effort and treatment toward the increasing span of the period between relapses into stammering and decreasing the length of the duration of relapses when it has occurred."

Others who stressed the value of the educational approach to the problem of stuttering were: Pauline B. Camp, Director of Special Education, Madison (Wis.) Public Schools; Letitia Raubicheck, Director of Speech Improvement, Board of Education, New York City; Eudora Estabrook, Director of Speech Correction, Grand Rapids (Mich.) Public Schools; Clara B. Stoddard, Detroit Public Schools; Lavilla Ward, Wisconsin State Department of Public Instruction. Many other who have here been classified in other "schools" of thought also regard stuttering as a problem to be treated by the educator.

A very highly specialized educational technique is recommended by Lee E. Travis, Ph. D., of the University of Iowa, and by Bryng Bryngelson of the University of Minnesota, who view stuttering as a defect growing out of a cerebral dysfunction,—a dysfunction that may yield to a special form of training. They

maintain that this training should be incorporated into the educational program for these stuttering children. In his paper Dr. Travis revives the perennial theory that left-handedness and stuttering are related. In speaking of the training of the stuttering child, he says:

"As we have discovered in the case studies, a stutterer's present motor leads may be out of harmony with determined native physiologic preferences. Since in many cases the stuttering dates from the beginning of such a discrepancy and disappears with the removal of it, we are led to consider in every case the possibility of changing or reverting in motor leads to the seemingly non-preferred hand. When it is decided that a 'right-handed' stutterer should become left-handed it is necessary that he make the change as complete as possible. Every manual activity in which a lead from one side of the body is possible should be controlled from the left side. Such would include writing, throwing, cutting, eating,dressing, handling a tennis racket, etc.

"On the basis of the observation on a number of stutterers that they can talk much better when writing and speaking simultaneously, particularly if the writing is being done with the left hand, we include also a technique for associating these two types of activity.

"Our studies have shown that approximately one-half of the stutterers are essentially ambidextrous in uni-manual activities. A great deal of this is undoubtedly the result of attempts on the part of parents and teachers to make naturally left-handed children right-handed. Some of it is the continuation of a condition of ambidexterity which existed from the beginning. The task of the speech pathologist is to develop in the stutterer strict one-sidedness, in all motor leads. The side to be selected and made the leading one is determined in the diagnosis of the case. It will be recalled here that family and personal histories of handedness and stuttering, physical, psychological, and speech examinations are used for diagnostic purposes. After the side which is to be made the lead one has been decided upon every effort should be made to accomplish the desired end. We go so far as to discourage typewriting and piano-playing. One of our cases reported a consistent relationship between amount of daily practice on the piano and severity of his stuttering. The more he practiced the worse his speech became and vice versa.

"Play and games should be introduced into the routine. They should be games which will tend to develop strength and skill in the left arm and hand, or the right, as the case may be. Punching a striking bag, throwing a ball, playing tennis, playing jack-stones, ping-pong, handball, horseshoes, and any number of other games will help to develop left-handedness or right-handedness where this is desired. Moreover, they will change an otherwise monotonous routine into a truly delightful program. If competitive games are used, scores should be kept from day to day; tournaments may be held. These things are stressed here because motivation and interest can never be over-emphasized."

THE PRIVATE SCHOOLS

Two of the speakers came from the background of the private schools for speech defectives, Samuel D. Robbins of the Boston Stammerers' Institute, and Mildred McGinnis of the Central Institute for the Deaf and Speech Defective, St. Louis. They stressed very definite and practical features of the stutterer's problem and his treatment. Mr. Robbins reported on an attempt to find out just what processes of treatment were most effective in the cure of stuttering. He states:

"A questionnaire sent to all who entered the Boston Stammerers' Institute within the past five years and took thirty or more lessons, thereby giving the course a fair trial, showed that 66% reported either that they had completely recovered or were materially helped; 34% reported they were somewhat helped; and none reported they had not been helped at all. Most of these pupils were between 16 and 36 years of age. In reply to my question asking which principles helped them most, the following exercises seemed most important in the order named:

"1. The easy start of the first word to be spoken on each breath.
"2. Keeping calm, relaxed, and unhurried in everything they do.
"3. Slow breathing.
"4. The relaxation pause on empty lungs.
"5. Never holding the breath between breathing and speaking.
"6. Joining all words smoothly and easily together.

"7. Getting the attention more on the vowels and less on the consonants.

"8. Sundry psychological helps that are difficult to measure."

Miss McGinnis, too, was quite specific in her advice about working theories and methods:

"I think the causative factors in the manifestation of stammering are two: First, an inherited weakness of the cortical speech areas as in the cases where there is an early history of delayed speech or imperfect phonation. Second, an inherited predisposition of an emotional instability together with association and psychic dominance of a parent who is emotionally unstable and whose overanxiety handicaps the child's freedom of thought and performance. Believing that either or both of these causes results in the handicap of stammering, a combination speech drill and mental hygiene would be a method suitable to the cause.

"Speech drills must not be drills in name only. They should be component parts of words, as syllables composed of consonants and vowels for the purpose of establishing a good voice, the habit of making the correct coordinations for all consonants and the habit of taking time to give each syllable its value. When syllable drills can be given with such requirements there should be an immediate correlation with speech, and conversation relative to mental hygiene should be carried on in a new and better voice. In detail, speech drills would include attention to vowel quality in words, articulation of final consonants, and attention to pauses, as the case requires."

THE PHENOMENOLOGISTS

Four of the participants in the symposium devoted their time largely to the discussion of the phenomena of stuttering, without making definite pronouncements as to the causation or the treatment of the disorder. Dr. Paul L. Schroeder of the Illinois Institute for Juvenile Research reported on an analysis of about five thousand case histories of children studied by the Institute. This study was an investigation of the possible relationship of personality and behavior difficulties to disorders of speech with particular reference to stammering. A statement of his findings follows:

"The relation of stammering to about a hundred personality and conduct traits within our data was investigated with a view

toward ascertaining the type of behavior difficulties which were found to be associated in some degree with stuttering and stammering. (This portion of the study was limited to boys, since the number of girl cases in our material appeared to be inadequate for statistical analysis.) The study covered two thousand one hundred and thirteen white boys aged six to seventeen years who are now, or have been, pupils in a regular school system.

"While these statistical calculations indicated the type of psychoneurotic, unaggressive behavior associated generally with the fact of stammering, they do not of themselves tell us which is primary and which is secondary. It may be that stammering is a symptom of this type of personality defect, or it may be that this type of personality is the result of the child's reaction toward his stammering. Or it is possible that the fact of stammering and the personality of the stammerer are both symptoms or concomitants of some deeper-lying causal complexes which will require more intensive research to isolate and identify.

"From this study the following conclusions are made. Among the five thousand children with behavior difficulties referred to the clinic, incidence of stammering was found in about four percent of the boys and in about two percent of the girls. There is no observable correlation between intelligence quotient as obtained on the Stanford-Binet and stammering and stuttering. Speech defects other than stammering are more frequent among lower intelligence levels.

"The general conclusion from this survey of about a hundred personality and conduct traits is that stammering appears to be characteristic of the shy, sensitive, inadequate, and neurotic sort of child rather than of the child with aggressive conduct traits."

Another of these phenomenologists was John M. Fletcher, Ph. D., a psychologist at Tulane University, New Orleans. He inveighs against the notion that one may judge the value of a working theory from its results. "In medicine such logic has been declared unsound and has been ruled out," he says.

"Who ever heard of a treatment for stuttering that was not reported as successful? This fact has done a great deal to block progress toward an understanding of the stutterer's difficulty. Psychology must be no less zealous than medicine in doing its part toward getting rid of this costly fallacy.

"As a student of this disorder I have lodged criticisms against the diagnosis of stuttering as a mere physiological incoordination induced by wrong habits of speech, and hence to the phonetic drill methods of treatment that are based upon such a diagnosis. I have adduced experimental data going to show that the phenomenon of stuttering may be made to come and go at will by even a slight manipulation of the social relations between the patient and his auditor *without* asking the patient to repeat the performance of stuttering.

"There is an almost endless number of ways in which the social situation may be altered for the stutterer, and a correspondingly great number of resultant patterns of social attitudes produced in his mind. In many instances the fact that we have changed the social setting may escape notice, so that the effects which we may have secured become assigned to other than their real causes. This, I believe, accounts for much of the deceptive success of many persons and institutions engaged in the treatment of stuttering, and at the same time explains the lack of permanency of the 'cures.' This fact has, I also believe, been responsible for the long delay in the working out of a dependable program of treatment for this age-old malady, and for the numerous misleading and futile programs of treatment that spring up from year to year even at this late day."

Dr. G. Oscar Russell of Ohio State University, Columbus, observes the phenomena of stuttering and reports them thus:

"All stutterers and stammerers encounter certain conditions, where they are not troubled. This represents a field where considerable research can still be done for proven facts are in a large measure lacking, and it is a scientific axiom that one is not justified in relying on the mere statement, especially of the stammerer and stutterer. But this much may be said:

"a. No stammerer or stutterer is troubled when he sings (especially in concert) common songs whose melody and words he knows well.

"b. Or when he whistles.

"c. Some of them soliloquize and some read with but slight difficulty when subjectively sure they are all alone (and certain other conditions are absent).

"d. Speech broken up into syllables each articulated along

with an accompanying voluntary muscular movement of almost any kind, whether of the arm, foot, breathing, or other similar muscles controlled from non-speech areas of the brain, can be trained to function in all stutterers and and stammerers without the usual blocking impediment,—or at least so long as the voluntary control is kept.

"e. Or un-blocked speech may be trained to accompany, or 'be superimposed on,' or 'be led by' many types of visual, auditory, or kinaesthetic images, so long as voluntary attention can be concentrated on the latter.

"Both (d) and (e) are sometimes grouped under the one term 'principle of distraction.' And while we know of no compilation of evidence not made by those who base methods of treatment on some aspect of one of these facts, their testimony would seem to indicate that under careful training, voluntary attention on the 'control' may in the end be relinquished under some of these processes."

Dr. Robert West of the University of Wisconsin in reporting on a survey of 10,268 stutterers found in American public schools presented certain findings as to the genetics of stuttering. His summary is as follows:

"I. The incidence of stuttering increases during those years when the articulatory disorders are on the decrease suggesting that stuttering is associated with etiological factors different from those producing disorders of articulation as such.

"II. The stutterers, as a class, show no appreciable difference in I. Q. from the non-stutterer, if we assume that the normal range lies between 90-110.

"III. The ratio between the number of male and female stutterers is not a constant one, but the males always outnumber the females. The ratio by grades is as follows:

1st—3.1 to 1
2nd—3.4 to 1
3rd—3.6 to 1
4th—4.2 to 1
5th—4.2 to 1
6th—4.0 to 1
7th—4.8 to 1

8th—3.7 to 1
9-10th—3.7 to 1
11-12th—5.5 to 1

"It is interesting to note that the ratio increases as we approach puberty, then for two years falls to 3.7 to 1 and then immediately rises to the highest point in the series.

"IV. Probably twice as many children begin to stutter during their school careers than before they go to school.

"V. The increase in stuttering in the lower grades is due to the increase in the number of male stutterers rather than that of the female stutterers. The increase of the boys alone from grade to grade is shown below:

Grade	Total No. in Grade	Increase over next grade lower
1	629	--
2	840	211
3	966	126
4	1052	86
5	1141	89
		Average increase 128

"Many more boys begin to stutter during five years of their schooling than begin before their school life; and the increase in the total number of stuttering cases, boys and girls, is due to the increase in the number of boys with very little increase in the number of girls. We speculate again as to the meaning of this sex difference."

In these papers the terms "stuttering" and stammering" have been used interchangeably and practically synonymously.

The following is the table of contents of the official Record of Proceedings of the Society, showing the exact titles of the addresses given.

"The Phenomenology of Stuttering," Robert West, Ph. D.

"The Educational Approach to the Problem of Stuttering," H. J. Heltman.

"Can Clinical Procedure in the Treatment of Stuttering be Used in the Public Schools?" Pauline B. Camp.

"How Dr. G. Hudson Makuen Treated Stammering," Mary Summers Steel.

"Stammering as An Impediment," C. S. Bluemel, M. D.

"Correction of Stammering in Big School Systems," Letitia Raubicheck.

"Basis for Work with Stutterers in Grand Rapids Public Schools," Eudora P. Estabrook.

"Twelve Years of Visual Treatment of Stuttering," M. Claudia Williams.

"Methods Used in the Treatment of the Stuttering Child in the Public Schools of Omaha (Nebraska)," Alice Liljegren.

"Relationship of Personality and Behavior Difficulties to Disorders of Speech," Paul L. Schroeder, M. D., and Luton Ackerson.

"Breath Control in Stammering," Samuel D. Robbins.

"Dunlap's Theory of the Treatment of Stuttering," John M. Fletcher, Ph. D.

"Stuttering," Smiley Blanton, M. D.

"A Consideration of Some of the Psychological Causes and Treatment of Stammering," Mabel Farrington Gifford.

"Why Visualization is the Best Method for Stammering," Walter B. Swift, M. D.

"The Correction of Stammering in Detroit," Clara B. Stoddard.

"The Treatment of Stuttering in the Public Schools of Wisconsin," Lavilla A. Ward.

"Some Interpretations of Recent Researches in the Correction of Stammering," Elizabeth A. McDowell, Ph. D.

"The Re-Adjustment of the Stutterer's Speech," Jennie Hedrick.

"Diagnosis and Treatment of Stuttering Cases," Lee Edward Travis, Ph. D.

"Oral Stammering: One of the Manifestations of the Conflicts of the Organic Stammerer," Charles G. Stivers, M. D.

"Speech Training and Mental Hygiene Method for the Correction of Stammering, Mildred A. McGinnis.

"The Problem of Stuttering," Frederick W. Brown.

"The Nature and Analytical Treatment of Stammering," Isador H. Coriat, M. D.

"Treatment of Stuttering," Bryng Bryngelson.

"Stuttering—What About It?" James Connett Greene, M. D.

"Conscious Detailed Psycho-Muscular Control of Speech Production as an Effective (if not necessary) Basis for all Manner of

Psychologic Treatment of Stammering," Elmer L. Kenyon, M. D.

"Neuro-Pedagogical Process of Treating Stammerers and Stutterers at Ohio State University," G. Oscar Russell, Ph. D.

General Discussion of Papers.

THE TRADITION OF OUR SUBJECT*

HOYT H. HUDSON
Princeton University

"TRADITION" is one of those fighting words. Each of us has an adequate set of commonplaces against tradition, and an equally adequate set of commonplaces for it. When the wind sits in the north-east, when the haemoglobin in our blood is well oxidized, when the pioneer spirit bred in us by our ancestors rises and goes on the march, we ring the changes on the anti-traditional chimes. We close our Matthew Arnolds and our Burkes, and open our Emersons and our Walt Whitmans. Then we know that tradition makes men bigots and slaves and pedants and superstitious yokels. It is the father of persecutions, and, I suppose, the brother of ignorance, the uncle of falsehoods, and the grandfather of stagnation. At least, that is the traditional way to attack it. "New occasions teach new duties; time makes ancient good uncouth." Let us break the shackles. Let us shake off the dead hand. "We will walk on our own feet; we will work with our own hands; we will speak our own minds."

But all this is on a Monday or a Tuesday. By Wednesday or Thursday comes the dawn of a new day, and with it a new mood. We are mellower now. We have been contemplating a bit of old poetry, or old architecture, or old music, or old philosophy. We suddenly realize anew the value of the legacy bequeathed to us by men of old. We are suffused with a sense of the past. We touch hands with the great and good who have gone before. There were giants in those days. "Now let us praise famous men, and our fathers who begat us." *We* must take up the torch, we must keep alight the flame upon the altar, and so on, and on.

Suppose we dismiss the commonplaces. Since on this high

*Delivered in part at the 1930 Convention of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH.

theoretical ground there is an equally strong case either for or against tradition, we may as well quit that ground, and discuss tradition with respect to a specific situation. Here we are, teachers of a group of related subjects, or, if you will, teachers of various branches of one subject, eager that our subject shall deserve respect and shall command the respect it deserves; eager that the content of our teaching shall be worthy and be appreciated—that is about our position, I believe. What can tradition do for us? Need we have any truck with it?

At this juncture, I had originally planned to begin my answer to these questions, and to say that I believe tradition can help us: first, it can do this for us; second, it can do that; and third, it can help us in this wise. But the thought struck me that in so doing I might be committing the fault to which our debaters are all too prone: I might be giving an excellent brief, and an argument from the brief, when I have not yet given a clear notion of the problem to be solved, when my audience has not been led into the nature of that problem or has not become sufficiently interested in the problem to care whether the argument is for the affirmative or for the negative. That is, specifically, I must remember that there are some who think we have no tradition, that our subject is spick-and-span new. I see articles from time to time which appear to be based on the premise, our subject is new. I hear echoes of this in blurbs from publishers, promoting a new book. So before I go forward with my brief, I must dwell a bit on the question, have we a tradition? In other words, am I to-day possibly speaking on the snakes in Iceland?

I do not intend to parade before your eyes the reverend figures of great and good men who in classical antiquity were teachers in some branch of the discipline we profess. In fact, disappointing as it may be to some, I hope to discuss the tradition of our subject without once mentioning the name of a certain Greek philosopher and scholar, the master of those who know. (I have always thought it would be interesting to attempt a performance of *Hamlet* with Hamlet left out.) Nor shall I mention a Roman orator who wrote treatises on speaking, or a Roman schoolmaster who did the same: there go Polonius and Horatio.

For the moment, let us go back to fairly recent times, in fact to the year 1772, and to a high road in the northern part of Scot-

land. On the afternoon of August 25, 1772, James Boswell and Dr. Samuel Johnson were riding along this high road. The entertainment afforded by the scenery, to a man of Johnson's tastes, was not abundant; and Boswell conceived the plan, to pass the time, of drawing up in prospect a list of teachers for a college which Johnson and he might establish, the faculty to be selected from their own circle of friends. Johnson took up the idea with eagerness. Boswell, he said, should teach Scotch law in this ideal college. Johnson would teach literature and theology—he'd trust the theology, he said, to no one else. Edmund Burke should teach politics and rhetoric. David Garrick should teach the art of public speaking. There is more of the story, but suppose we pause here. I am struck with the fact that in 1772 Johnson took it as a matter of course that there would be teachers of rhetoric and of public speaking in a college; that he deemed the general subject important enough to devote to it all the time of one of his small faculty, with part of the time of another. And finally, I am struck with the fact that any college or any department of speech or of public speaking represented here would consider itself fortunate if it could have Burke and Garrick in exactly the positions Dr. Johnson wanted them in. Think of it, David Garrick, the successful actor, producer, and manager of a theatre,—what a course in play production he could give! What a course in acting! What courses in voice training and diction! Think of the summer school enrollment! Then Burke, with his course in rhetoric: we should all want to take it. And if it is true that when Burke spoke he emptied the House of Commons and filled the lobbies, think how much at home he would feel and the rest of us would feel when he came to present a paper at the convention of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH.

It is hard to see how anyone can claim novelty for our work, when what was an ideal and yet a perfectly normal arrangement for taking care of it in 1772 would be an ideal and yet a perfectly normal arrangement for taking care of it in 1931. Of course we have a tradition, an English and an American tradition no less than a classical one. What were you doing two weeks ago? Talking about gesture? Coaching a school play? Teachers were doing the same thing in English schools and colleges in 1630 and in 1730

and in 1830.[1] Were you listening to the speeches of students? Teachers have done the same thing in England since the Renaissance and in America since the founding of Harvard College.

A little book printed in London in 1617, written by a certain Robert Robinson, bears the title, *The Art of Pronunciation*. Robert Robinson had been thinking about pronunciation, especially with relation to spelling, and he was troubled and impatient because no one had taken pains to distinguish all of the different sounds used in the pronunciation of modern languages and to provide a separate symbol for each sound. He wrote a long preface about this matter. He said:[2] "the want of knowledge whereof hath caused both in speech and writing many imperfections and errors, as at times taking one simple sound of a man's voice to be two, at other times taking two, three, or four simple sounds to be but one, and according to that mistaken order fitting letters for them; whereby writing is thereby in some part made defective, besides by many other errors used therein, as by misplacing of letters, contrary to the order wherein they are pronounced, inserting of superfluous letters where there is no need nor any sound at all expressed by them, making one letter serve for two different sounds, sometimes for one and sometimes for another...." And so on. We know the story. And then Robinson also pointed out that no foreigner could tell anything about English pronunciation from the spelling, nor could we pronounce a foreign language from its spelling. "Now, therefore," he said, "seeing in other sciences less useful, the professors of them have set them down in exact propositions, I cannot see (especially considering how necessary a thing true pronunciation is, both for the grace of the speech as for the commodity and advantage it may beget to the commonwealth, as well at home as in commerce and traffic had in foreign parts with other nations, by conferring with them in their own language) how in this it can be accounted unnecessary to seek a means whereby to remedy these manifold abuses and imperfections in speech and writing." In

[1] One of the biographers of George Whitefield, the eighteenth-century evangelist, attributes his dramatic power in the pulpit to the fact that in the school Whitefield attended about 1712, especially good work was done in play production.

[2] Spelling modernized. For earlier attempts by Englishmen to establish a phonetic alphabet or phonetic spelling, see the works of Sir Thomas Smith (1513-1577) and of William Bullokar (fl. 1586).

short, what he did in his book was to analyze the sounds of English, classifying both vowel and consonant sounds by position; and then to devise a set of characters, some of them resembling ordinary Roman letters and some of his own invention, as a phonetic alphabet.

It seems that we are all in the position of Senlin, in Conrad Aiken's poem:

> It is morning, Senlin says, and in the morning,
> When the light drips through the shutters like
> the dew,
> I arise, I face the sunrise,
> And do the things my fathers learned to do.

Still, we don't do exactly what our fathers learned to do. Sometime we improve the tradition. In a book on gesture published in 1644, *Chironomia* by John Bulwer—written by a doctor, incidentally; and that's a part of our tradition, that some of our best books, such as Rush on *The Philosophy of the Human Voice* and Sir Richard Paget on *Human Speech*, are written by doctors or by some one outside our profession—at any rate, Bulwer in his *Chironomia* tells a story, lifted from one of the late Sophists, of a speaker back in Greece who used an habitual alternation of gesture, up and down; and one day he was supposed to call upon the heavens and the earth, and got a bit twisted and said: "O earth [upward gesture], and heavens [downward gesture]!" That story had been told in public speaking classes for seventeen or eighteen centuries when Bulwer printed it in England. But the fashion of this world passeth away; and time went on, and John Wesley was born, and the evangelical movement came along, and hymns were written; and some brilliant colleague of ours made an improvement on the old traditional story. Now it is the preacher who has the habitual alternation of gestures. And we've all told the story: "When the roll is called up yonder [upward gesture], I'll be there [downward gesture]!"

A few years ago, when the present name of this ASSOCIATION was adopted, there were many who wondered whether the word "speech" could include the study of persuasive speaking, or rhetoric. I suppose we thought we were wrestling with a new problem; but of course we weren't. In a poem published in 1599, *Nosce Teipsum*, the author, Sir John Davies, runs over the various

branches of human learning with the intention of pointing out that man never applies his study to himself—that he never follows the sage's maxim, "Know thyself." As Davies went down the list, he came to the subject of rhetoric. But it happened that for the sake of the meter he needed a shorter word. He was faced with the very problem with which we have wrestled: could the monosyllable "speech" be used to mean the study of rhetoric? He decided that it could, and wrote:

"We study speech, but others we persuade."

Yet there are those who tell us that the study of speech is something new; when three hundred and thirty years ago this Englishman set down the statement, "We study speech," and meant by it exactly what thousands of American students enrolled in certain of our courses mean by the same three words to-day.

I am aware that the scientists, the laboratory workers, among us, may say with some justice that their labors represent something new. A number of their methods, to be sure, are new. Yet the scientific study of speech is not new; a hundred years ago people called it the philosophical study of speech; and of course Rush's title, *The Philosophy of the Human Voice* means exactly what anyone would mean to-day by "The Science of the Human Voice." Rush would be delighted to come into a modern laboratory of speech. He would know exactly what the idea of it all is, and I'll wager that in a very few hours he would have the hang of most of the apparatus. The same statements hold for Joshua Steele, fifty years earlier than Rush. Nor must we forget that, in the very dawn of the modern scientific era, John Bulwer made a scientific study of gesture in his *Chironomia* and *Chirologia* (1644). Francis Bacon, in a list of the *desiderata* in science, appended to his *Advancement of Learning* (in the Latin version), had called for such a study of gesture and Bulwer attempted to supply the need. A few years later this same author made an elaborate study of the muscles of the face as used in the expression of emotion; and Bulwer was the first to suggest "an academy of the mute." The teaching of the and dumb, says Foster Watson, is "the direct outcome of the study of the Rhetoric of the gesture of the mouth and the hand."

It may be that for persuasive purposes we sometimes want to represent our subject as new. If our audience is made up of modern

Athenians, who are always eager to hear of some new thing, I suppose we may be pardoned for trying to make out that what we teach is, like the booze racket, largely a post-war phenomenon. But I can't help thinking that if it's academic recognition we are after, the academic world being what it is, a supporter of the traditional rather than of the new and bizarre, we probably are in a stronger position if we say, not that our subject is new, but that it is old; and we shall then gain whatever satisfactions come, in this world and the next, from telling the truth.

Now, when my time is nearly up, I have arrived at the point where I had wished to commence. Let me spend a very few minutes upon the proposition that, assuming we have a tradition, it behooves us to become acquainted with it. Even if we want to revolt against it, I suppose we ought to learn it first. Our lives might be simpler, to be sure, if behind us there were nothing but the elocutionists—if behind the elocutionists there were a void. Then we could say, "Oh, we aren't teaching that terrible elocution. We are teaching speech, a new subject." And that would settle the matter. It is a more difficult and a more complicated task to find out what our heritage and pedigree are. Probably we even protest too much about the elocutionists; and this over-emphatic protest, may be partly due to a bad conscience caused by our never having taken the trouble to examine their system, to see what was in it. But be that as it may, the elocutionists to whom I refer, at worst, held sway for perhaps two generations out of the sixty-five generations that have come and gone since Corax trained speakers in Syracuse—Sicily, not New York. We have in keeping a discipline and a body of knowledge and an approach to education which have commanded the interest and the devoted labors of men in every one of those sixty-five generations. Surely we are in a rather graceless position if we act as people without a history, as though wisdom had been born with us, and hence would die with us. Surely there is place for that natural piety which bids us survey with some affection the pit from which we were digged and the rock from which we were hewn.

Let us remember the Bandar-Log. Rudyard Kipling, in his *Jungle Book,* describes this race, an inferior race of monkeys that lived in an old ruined city of the jungle:

"... Some king had built it long ago on a little hill....The Bandar-logs called the place their city, and pretended to despise the jungle people because they lived in the forest. And yet they never knew what the buildings were made for nor how to use them. They would sit in the hall of the King's council-chamber and scratch for fleas and pretend to be men; or they would run in and out of the roofless houses and collect pieces of plaster and old bricks in the corner and forget where they had hidden them, and fight and cry in scuffling crowds, and then break off to play up and down the terraces of the King's garden, where they would shake the rose trees and the oranges in sport to see the fruit and flowers fall. They explored all the passages and dark tunnels in the palace, and the hundreds of little dark rooms, but they never remembered what they had seen and what they had done, and so drifted about in ones or twos or crowds, telling one another they were doing as men did—or shouting, 'There are none in the jungle so wise and good and clever and strong and gentle as the Bandar-log.' Then they would tire and seek the tree-top, hoping the jungle people would notice them...and then they joined hands and danced about and sang their foolish songs. 'The Bandar-logs have no law,' said Mowgli to himself, 'no hunting call and no leaders.'...And he could not help laughing when they cried, 'We are great, we are free, we are wonderful....We all say so, and so it must be true....You shall carry our words back to the jungle people that they may notice us in the future'."

But I do not wish to end on this negative note of warning and caricature. I do think a knowledge of our tradition, beginning with a realization of our need for such knowledge, will make for a salutary and becoming humility on our part. Paradoxically enough, I think it will also make for a wholly justifiable pride. But another positive motive to studying our tradition is that study gives us perspective upon our own labors and our own place, if any, in the sun. Professor Lowes has called our attention to the fact that besides the millions of lying epitaphs which remain, there is one true epitah, one which is found again and again in graveyards all over the world. It runs something like this:

> Stop, careless youth, as you pass by;
> As you are now, so once was I;
> As I am now, so you will be.

Every one of the sixty-five generations I spoke of was once the younger generation, intensely and very much modern, as now we

are And we, modern as we are, will be just as antiquated, just as dusty, just as quaint, just as funny,—if you find the modernists of the past quaint and funny— after a few years have come and gone. By studying thoroughly our tradition, by becoming acquainted with speech training as it was carried on in one or more of the centuries preceding ours, we can become acquainted with ourselves. We can see ourselves as we should have been if we had happened to be born earlier; and better yet, we can see how we shall look to teachers of the future, when time has brought perspective. We can see the pitfalls that lie about our path, the tangents upon which we are in danger of flying off, we can profit by the mistakes of our ancestors, who say to us all too truly, "As I am now, so shall you be."

But it seems to me that the strongest motive to a study of our tradition is our need for unity. A common tradition may be a stronger tie than a common language; it is a tie which we have almost overlooked. That is, when we meet for the first time some teacher in our field, we never know until we sound him out just what he knows, what allusions he will understand. We may assume that he knows two or three books published in the past twenty years, but we may be wrong there. Shouldn't we be much further advanced toward unity, and hence toward strength, if we could be sure, whenever we heard a new name in our field, that there would be certain things that person would have in his background? As I must be brief and want to be specific, I shall also be rash, and suggest four works, three of them by Englishmen and one of them by an American, which I believe every member of our profession might well have in his background, and a knowledge of which would tend to bind us together more firmly than we now are bound. I suggest that it isn't too much to expect every one of us to know Thomas Wilson's *Arte of Rhetorique*, published in 1553; Thomas Sheridan's *Lectures on Elocution*, published in 1762; James Rush's *Philosophy of the Human Voice*, published in 1827; and Richard Whately's *Elements of Rhetoric*, published in 1828. With these four, I would suggest an equal number of ancient works—eight books in all. Is it too much to expect? Of the four books I name, only one is now in print. One of the members of this ASSOCIATION has shown that the edition kept in print is faulty, and has prepared an edition of his own which should be

published. Another of our members has prepared an edition of Whately, which also should be published. The other two works can occasionally be picked up as rare books. These and others, perhaps equally important, should be brought back to light. And we shouldn't wait for a teacher of English, or a teacher of logic, or some other sort of teacher to superintend the job.

But I fear I am getting lost in practicalities. Yet I do want to be understood as addressing myself to practical matters, to such a practical problem as the gaining of college credit for our work in secondary schools, to the practical problem of the direction our graduate study should take, and especially to the practical problem of gaining unity in our profession, of having something more than a name, more even than an organization, to which to address our loyalty. So far as I have a case, it does not rest, of course, on the four books I mentioned. I trust it doesn't rest too much on books at all; but rather on traits and attitudes and desires which are common to us all and congenial to our natures. We want enrichment of our lives as well as enrichment of our teaching. We want to feel ourselves in touch with our kind, belonging to something of continuing dignity among mankind, something which will outlast our own brief career. Keen as may be the thrill of the pioneer, the feeling of being in new territory, cutting a new path, there is a canny instinct which warns him not to get hopelessly out of touch with home, lest he be lost in the waste, his work futile and forgotten. However far we may have come, whatever new ground we may have advanced upon, we shall go farther more surely, we shall hold that ground permanently, if we take care not to cut our lines of communication with the past.

A GENETIC APPROACH TO PERSUASION

WILLIAM NORWOOD BRIGANCE
Wabash College

THOUSANDS of dollars are spent urging me to subscribe, join, buy, pay, vote, give, change my mind, and accept new doctrines. Whether or not I do any of these things is determined largely by the desires, whims, ideas, and superstitions that I carry around in daily life. The question here raised is why I buy one

commodity and refuse another, accept one idea and reject another? In short, what is the nature of persuasion?

Philosophers and logicians, following the lead of Aristotle, long assumed that man was purely a reasoning creature who thought according to the laws of logic and who was induced to believe chiefly or solely by *a priori* processes. This mechanistic conception held man to be merely a logical machine who could be led into new paths of conduct only by the driving power of a syllogism. Philosophies were formulated and texts were written upon this premise.

The orator, the statesman, and the vender of wares, of course, knew better. So while the logicians, after the metaphysics of Hudibras, were seeking:

> "To sever and divide
> A hair 'twixt north and northwest side,"

in their bickering over sorites and fallacies, these practical men of affairs won votes and sold goods through types of persuasion far removed from logic.

The modern psychological view of persuasion is closer to the practice of these men of affairs than it is to the philosophy of older scholars. The scientific knowledge acquired by the psychologist, however, allows him to do what the man of affairs could not do, namely to refine the technique, to reduce it to a system, and to show why it is effective.

The forces of persuasion, it is now known, are not rambling or incoherent, but are ordered and systematized, having their origin in our racial development. When Longfellow wrote the famous dictum:

> "Let the dead Past bury its dead!
> Act, act, in the living present,"

he was expressing an idea that, however true in the sense he intended, in a biological sense, was utterly impossible. Biologically, the "dead past" never "buries its dead," nor does mankind ignore that past, even when acting in "the living present." Scientific biologists and psychologists now agree with H. Heath Bawden that, "the sensitivities, the activities, and the attitudes of our ancestors, human and animal, were not merely stages through which they have passed, leaving them forever behind, but growths that have somehow entered into the very structure of behavior itself."[1] In

[1] Bawden, H. Heath: *"The Evolution of Human Behavior," Psychol. Rev.*, 1919, 26:247.

other words, there is found always in our present mode of life, "the precipitate of the past in an altered environment," and the existence of this precipitate gives us the leading clue as to why men accept or reject new ideas, believe or disbelieve what they are told, with little regard for logic or reason.

We can best understand the nature of persuasion then, if we comprehend the manner in which its various attributes have developed in the race and in the individual. For these modes of development have now become "precipitates of the past" which have "entered into the very structure of behavior itself" and still exert their reigning influence.

AUTHORITY

Let us begin with primitive man. His was a world peopled with fairies, super-humans, witches, and weir-wolves. Gourd-rattling and drum-beating were his cures for human ailments. Rabbit feet offered him protection in times of danger and conjuring was a threat to his enemies.

Whence came these ideas? Not from logic, nor from reason, but from the magic of medicine men. Primitive people believed and continued to believe what they were taught and told to believe. They took their knowledge on hearsay, and with this borrowed knowledge, they borrowed also their beliefs in religion, politics, and medical dogma. This source of belief we shall call *Authority*. Authority was the outstanding source of belief among primitive peoples.

Broadly speaking, the history of the race repeats itself in the individual, and we see this counterpart of primitive belief in the very young child. Young children accept new ideas with little question. The mere suggestion of an idea usually is sufficient for implicit belief. Not until a child grows older, acquires more knowledge, more experience, does he raise any serious questions over the acceptance of ready-made new ideas from others.

Belief, then, seems to be, as Alexander Bain has said, an *original process* in the child and among primitive peoples. We begin life, individually and racially, by believing everything.

Doubt, on the other hand, comes only with experience. This, Bain has aptly called, "Acquired Skepticism."[2]

Now in the development of man from a primitive race, two

[2] Bain, A.: *"Emotions and the Will,"* (1888), 511.

striking modifications have taken place in the reliance upon Authority as a medium of persuasion. First, its force has been weakened, and second, its aspect has been modified. The weakening of Authority is evident even among the mass of people (where it still is potent) as compared with, say, eight hundred years ago. It is apparent as one proceeds from less educated to more educated individuals.

Public opinion among the masses of western Europe eight hundred years ago was straight-jacketed by kingcraft and priestcraft. Divine Right of Kings was the epitome of belief in Authority. But before the pressure of intellectual advancement that doctrine collapsed as a house of cards. Likewise in the religious realm, the whole sway of thought during these eight centuries has been away from implicit acceptance of the Authority of the priesthood. In the thirteenth century, a Papal Bull against John, King of England, brought that monarch to his knees in complete submission. But no longer are such interdicts issued from the Vatican, not even as a mode of last resort. It is a weapon outworn. I think we may fairly assume that, were its resurrection attempted, the attempt would be a futile gesture.

We are witnessing in China today a repetition of this mental phenomenon. Of all civilized or semi-civilized peoples in contemporary life, the Chinese perhaps have relied most heavily upon Authority. It has been a land of ancestor worship, where the acceptance of ideas, secondhand and ready-made has endured the longest. Yet out of the throes of China in the past two decades, queues have disappeared, ancestor worship has weakened, and youth are rebelling against their elders! Nathaniel Peffer, in that searching essay upon the "Death of Chinese Civilization," summarizes this whole trend with these words: "Authority is no longer recognized."[3] This is an overtone of discord always found when a people undertake to break away from ready-made beliefs.

It is not to be assumed, however, that Authority is no longer a useful medium of persuasion among civilized peoples. Weakened though it is, still it is potent. The mass of people remain gullible. In the main they still believe what they are told to believe. When the political party in power "points with pride," its followers are convinced that all is well in Zion. When the party out of power

[3] *Harper's Magazine*, March 1930, 504.

"views with alarm," its followers can find no balm in Gilead. If the Bible affirms that God, in six days, created the heavens and earth, appointed the seasons, brought forth living creatures, and set up man in dominion over them,—then it is blasphemy to suggest that the universe was millions of years in the forming. The moral, religious, and political beliefs of the mass of people in the main are so derived. "The dead hand of the past," exclaims Jastrow, "lays its heavy burden on man's thinking,"[4] and the weight of that hand holds us to many a creed outworn.

Prestige, which is so important a factor in any public career, is nothing more than a particular form of Authority. It enables its possessor to exercise a peculiar dominion over his or her followers. This dominion wholly or partially paralyzes the critical faculities of the persons affected and thereby breaks down resistence to the acceptance of ready-made ideas. Hence great popular leaders rely heavily on prestige. "Neither gods, kings, nor women," exclaimed LeBon, "have ever reigned without it."[5]

I have said, however, that two important modifications of Authority have taken place in racial advancement. The first is its weakening, the second is its changing aspect. Primitive man yielded to Authority out of *fear*. He dared not question many of the things he had been told to believe. For untold centuries among the Hawaiians, for example, it was taboo for men and women, even husband and wife or mother and infant son, to eat together or to so much as have their food cooked in the same oven. The act was impious and the violator would be killed on the spot by avenging gods,—so the people were told to believe and so they did believe. Not until 1819 did a bold female, the Queen Regent, dare to risk divine wrath by preparing a feast for her male followers. Even then, while the bolder followers feasted with the queen, the common people waited in awe to witness the judgment of the bods upon the impious act. The feast was completely over before they could be convinced. Only then did they raise the shout, "Eureka, the taboos are at an end. The gods are a lie."

In modern man, however, this aspect of Authority has altered. He no longer yields to it out of naive fear, but rather out of a psychological modification of fear. To be in disagreement with the

[4] Jastrow, J.: "*Psychology of Conviction*," (1918), 3.
[5] LeBon, G.: "*The Crowd*," (1910), 148.

leaders of one's political party, one's religious faith, one's social group, produces unpleasant stresses and tensions in the nervous system; likewise it sets up a disturbing activity in the glandular system. These unpleasant physiological disturbances leave the average person with the feeling of being a misfit among his fellows, of not "belonging." Now above all things, Mr. Average Person longs to fit in, to be an acceptable and harmonious member of his social group. He discovers, therefore, a soothing release from these stresses, tensions, and glandular disturbances in yielding to the dominant beliefs of the social, political, or religious groups in which he moves; for unto him is then extended the glad hand of fellowship; he is taken in and made to feel at home. Thus do ugly ducklings become graceful swans and therefore the average person yields to the Authority of the group.

That stratum of mankind lowest in intelligence and in mental aggressiveness yields almost entirely to this herd pressure. As we ascend to higher strata we find an increasing resistance. It is not, however, until we reach the highest stratum—that of genius or near-genius, of minds that represent the flower of intelligence in modern man—that we find our Darwins and Pasteurs in science, our Spinozas and Voltaires in philosophy, who are willing to put all accepted beliefs to the test and to walk the road alone, if need be, to higher altitudes in thought and discovery.

EXPERIENCE

If we turn once again to primitive man we find that, as he emerges into a low stage of civilization, more and more does he tend to test his ideas in the light of older knowledge Authority now begins to yield ground, albeit grudgingly, and man is persuaded to accept new ideas more in accordance with whether they conform to his older patterns of knowledge Opinions in the individual, and in the race, tend increasingly to become the residue of what we call Experience. Thus as the race advances, Experience becomes the second important medium of persuasion. I do not know any more significant fact, revealing the importance of Experience in persuasion, than that adduced by Pillsbury in his *Psychology of Reasoning,* in showing that *if we follow the development of any theory in science, we find that the theories in each particular age have harmonized with the observations and the accumulated knowledge of that particular age.*[6]

[6] Pillsbury, W. B.: "*Psychology of Reasoning,*" (1910), 44.

Let us take an example from Pillsbury's own field, that of psychology. During the infancy of experimental psychology, apparatus and techniques had been developed which allowed only "still-shots" of sensory and motor qualities. Thereupon arose theories in psychology known as "Structuralism." Later it became possible to get "moving pictures," so to speak, of these qualities; and immediately there sprang into being a new psychology known as "Functionalism." Finally when physiologists moved over into the field, bringing their knowledge of "urges" and "drives," there arose a "Dynamic Psychology."

In other words, Reason—so often touted by Philosophers as the sole medium of persuasion—has played a role distinctly secondary, even in the realm of science. What is true of science is true also of our social, political, and religious theories to whatever degree they have been able to arise above the level of simple Authority.

Let us observe how Experience as a factor of persuasion works out in the individual. As each individual lives, grows and labors in contact with the world, he acquires what Walter Lippman has termed "an ordered and more or less consistent picture,"[7] of the world. Now this will not be a complete picture of the universe, for obviously one individual can, in a single lifetime, live, work, and move in only a small segment of the universe. Nevertheless out of the accumulated experiences we do form the picture of a private and personal universe to which we are adapted, and wherein people and things have their well-known places.

Now after this personal universe of ours takes on its first semblance of order, no experience thereafter stands alone. The most simple experience is now evaluated in the light of the sum total of our past experiences—is fitted into the picture in our mind. If a statement of an idea harmonizes with this picture, this private universe, all goes well. We accept it, take it in, make it our own. But if it fails to find a groove or is a misfit in this private universe, out it goes. Argument will not save it, for it seems to be an attack upon the foundations of the universe. Indeed it *is* an attack upon the foundations of *our* universe. "And," as Mr. Lippman comments, "where big things are at stake, we do not readily admit

[7] Lippman, W.: "*Public Opinion*," (1922), 95.

that there is any distinction between *our* universe and *the* universe."[8] (Italics mine.)

This, of course, is a very simple picture of our minds. Actually, instead of having merely one picture in our heads comprising our entire universe, we have several separate and distinct pictures. That is to say, we may have a partial crystallization of knowledge about different centers of thought—as theology, politics, finance, and science. Each is kept separate and an idea may be taken into one of them that would be cast out, as a misfit, from one or more of the others.

We may also have a mass of *unorganized* material and some that is but partly organized. These we carry around in the form of hypotheses. Persuading an individual to accept a new idea, in actual practice, often becomes a matter, not simply of fitting an idea into a suitable place within the organized pictures in his mind, but rather of crystalizing half-formed or unorganized nebulae into a whole new planet of an idea.

This dependence of belief upon the relation of new ideas to the organized mass of Experience already in the mind, offers the most fruitful possibility yet made by psychology to the realm of persuasion, yet the old logicians and philosophers passed it by as ships that pass in the night—with no sign of greeting They were content if an argument satisfied certain forms and tests,—if it escaped the dangers of an "incorrect obversion," "imperfect disjunction," or "ambiguous middle." They had little concern with the relation of the argument to the organized picture in the mind of the hearer.

Modern advertisers, however, have learned the secret. They never argue; they seldom reason. They seek to build the picture in our minds. We know what to reach for "instead of a sweet;" we have learned how to "say it with flowers;" we are familiar with automobile tires that are "geared to the road;" we remember that insurance company which is "the Rock of Gibraltar;" and we grow disturbed over the insidious danger of which "your best friend won't tell you." Why? Certainly not because we have been argued into belief. Rather because the picture has been put into our minds. The artist's illustration, delineated in subtle colors, catches our eye. The artful slogan is painted in our memory. The

[8] *Ibid*, 96.

vibrant voice of the radio announcer, with words of special mintage and pleasing *nuances,* resounds in our ear. The picture is made. We accept it as true and act upon our belief, enough of us at least to make advertising a highly profitable enterprise.

REASON

At last we come to Reason. It is the latest medium of persuasion to be acquired in the human race. It is therefore the weakest. It plays practically no part in the mental life of primitive peoples. It plays a distinctly minor role in the life of the average person, even in civilized society. "We have seen," says Abdul Majid, "that the masses never attain intellectual manhood, that possessing as they do all the characteristics of children—imitation, fantasticability, suggestibility, predominance of feeling, impulsiveness, and sheer incapacity for intellectual application, they are perpetually in an age of intellectual minority." "Arguments and reasoned statements can appear to minds of highly cultured individuals and to them alone. When addressed to the crowd they defeat their purpose."[9]

Advertisers know this; therefore they have practically eliminated Reason from advertising intended for the average person. Politicians know it; therefore we now have, and long shall continue to have, campaign orators who are spell-binders and phrase-makers. Psychologists are in practically unanimous agreement upon it. "Logical sense," says Jastrow, "is the slowest, most laborious, as well as the most precious of psychological growths."[10] To the common man it is fairly safe, it holds, so long as he remains upon familiar ground, *but only so long.* Whenever he leaves the immediate range of experience, reasoning is dangerous and untrustworthy. Pillsbury is inclined to doubt if Reason, under all circumstances, is safe for the common man, even on familiar ground. For he is too anxious to simplify his knowledge, to arrange it all into a symmetrical picture.[11] Like the philosophers referred to by William James, the common man does indeed "hunger and thirst not for truth, but for unity." Often, therefore, he will lean upon the most superficial and fallacious reasoning that allows him to fit a new idea into the ordered picture already in his head. Indeed

[9] Quoted, Young, K.: *"Source Book for Social Psychology,"* 572.
[10] Jastrow, J.: *"Psychology of Conviction,"* (1918), 7-9.
[11] Pillsbury, W. B.: *"Psychology of Reasoning,"* (1910), 234.

much that goes by the title of "reasoning" is not reasoning at all, but rather a method of proof for conclusions *already reached* by other processes.

From social pressure, suggestion (i. e. Authority), or from the welter of subconscious inferences that forms the residue of our Experience, we "fix our prejudices, personal opinions, whims, conceits, and pet notions." But not all others are ready to "accept us for our good looks or have had experiences that coincide with ours." To justify our opinions, then we marshall the whole of our intellectual ingenuity to make our opinions acceptable in the sight of the Lord. This we call "reasoning." Very often it is scarcely a step ahead of the mental operations of the drunkard, described by William James, who always could offer a "reason" for taking another drink. It was a new brand of liquor which the "interests of intellectual culture in such matters" obliged him to test; it was already poured out and it would be a sin to waste it; others were drinking and "it would be churlishness to refuse."[12]

Biologically, Reason seems to be the equipment given man for attaining better *means* toward the biological *ends* of life. But most of us can live, gain food and shelter, and reproduce our kind, without its aid. Therefore, we do so. True Reason, as a medium of persuasion, is reserved for the members of the minority who have attained genuine intellectual maturity and have disciplined themselves to its rigors.

Let us draw together the substance of this theory of persuasion:

1. The tools of persuasion are best understood and most effectively used if we view them in the order of their origin and development in the race.

2. The acceptance of ideas borrowed and ready-made, which we call Authority, is the oldest mode of persuasion in the human race. It is still the most potent with primitive man; still highly potent with the masses and; becomes less effective as we go up the educational and intellectual scale. *To use persuasion at this level, the speaker seeks to establish a Personal Prestige; or if this be inadequate, to indentify himself with some institution, or organization (political, religious, etc.) of recognized Authority. Thus*

[12] James, W., "*Psychology, Briefer Course*," (1892), 453.

fortified, he may rely upon Assertion and Suggestion—he may indeed speak with the Voice of a Prophet.

3. The second mode of persuasion acquired in the human race was the acceptance of ideas that fit into organized and ordered Experience. It is potent at all levels of society. *To use persuasion at this level, the speaker assembles his picture with materials familiar to the hearer—by colorful words and effective phrases, by figures of speech and interrogation, by illustration and comparison. While the picture is builded, he cements attention by the devices of activity and of suspense.*

4. The most recently acquired mode of persuasion in the race is Reason. It is newest, therefore weakest. It is ineffective among primitive peoples; almost equally ineffective among the lowest stratum of civilized peoples. It is safe for the common man only upon familiar ground. *To use persuasion at this level, the speaker will judiciously mix it with Authority and Experience, except in addressing persons of the highest intellectual level.*

ANOTHER SPEECH DEPARTMENT RECORDS PROGRESS

VIRGINIA SANDERSON
San Jose State Teachers' College

IN view of the fact that the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION recently made an extensive survey of speech education in teacher-training institutions and gave to an interested public a panoramic picture of the current situation, it may be that a more detailed account of the work done in one of these teachers' colleges will be worth consideration. If there has been no attempt made to conceal the identity of the college it is because the author feels that specific reference makes the report more valuable, though she must run the risk of being accused of exploitation and advertisement. It has often occurred to her, however, that articles dealing with the organization and development of speech departments could be very worthwhile. It is interesting to compare progress and problems. In the belief that others may agree with this idea, the following account is presented.

Now that the first four-year graduates are out in the teaching field and the next group is to be graduated this June, it seems

a particularly good time to put on record the work of the Speech Arts department at San Jose State Teachers' College. It has been in existence long enough to report a certain development and to realize certain problems.

Five years ago the State Board of Education in California, recognizing the importance of speech education sanctioned the establishment of a department of Speech at San Jose, where the oldest of the seven teacher-training institutions of California is located.

The primary object of the department at first was to train special teachers of speech for the secondary schools, but other equally important obligations have developed until now the purposes of the department are five-fold. It does, of course, train special teachers of speech, and it is with this training that the present paper deals; but the need of the general elementary teacher for speech courses, designed to help her go forth better equipped for oral work, has necessitated the working out of special units of instruction, not for the purpose of making her a specialist, but in the hope that the practical speech training she receives will help her to be a better general elementary teacher. The department, too, is obligated to look after its "minors," students interested in the field of speech, but unable to take all the work required of a "major," because of some other teaching interest. Speech "minors" may have Music, Commerce, Industrial Arts, or Physical Education for a "major," and probably have little or no intention of teaching Speech; but the department cannot lose sight of the fact that many teachers are asked to teach their "minors," and therefore must provide as practical a "minor" as is possible. Since, also, three units of speech are required of all students in the college, regardless of their "majors," fundamental courses in Public Speaking and Oral Interpretation must be offered, for the three units must be in these fields. These courses must be organized to satisfy the requirements of other colleges and universities, for San Jose State Teachers' College is a junior college as well, and many students transfer to another institution at the end of the second year. Lastly, the department provides what is called a "pre-secondary" course, for those students who desire an A. B. and a "major" in Speech, but who plan to take a fifth year in another institution, a graduate school or private school of dramatic art,

and do not wish a state teaching credential. Speech courses, English, French and German, constitute a large share of the requirements for these students; they take few education courses and are excused from practice teaching.

In the light of last year's survey of speech education in teacher-training institutions, a report of the necessary training and equipment of the speech "major" will probably be of most interest. What has been his background, training and equipment when at the end of four years he is graduated and recommended as qualified to teach and supervise speech education in the public schools?

All students entering San Jose State Teachers' College, and registering as "majors" in Speech must have the same general academic training and educational background required for teachers in other academic branches. These requirements include courses in English Composition, Psychology, Natural Science, Social Science, Mathematics, and a foreign language, unless the last two general requirements have been satisfactorily completed in high school.[1] The number of general requirements for the lower division totals 96 units, 54 of which are definitely prescribed, the remaining 42 being left to the discretion of the departments in which the student decides to take his "majors" or "minors."

Speech "majors" in addition to the general requirements must complete a year's course in Public Speaking,[2] a year of Oral Interpretation, two quarter courses in Debate, with a third quarter highly recommended, a quarter course entitled "Choosing the School Play," a course each in Music and Art Appreciation,[3] and either an elective in the department or additional courses in English.[4] The advisers for the department also try to help the "majors" choose their "minors" as early as possible in order that

[1] Study of a foreign language is recommended for all speech majors, and required for those taking the pre-secondary course.

[2] Speech majors postpone the third quarter of Public Speaking until the Upper Division; the subject matter is then treated professionally. All other students taking the year course complete it in the Lower Division where emphasis is upon the acquiring of speech skills.

[3] Courses in Art and Music Appreciation are required in the hope that they arouse in him an appreciation of and desire for further knowledge of art and music, and show him the close relationship between them and the speech arts.

[4] The year course "Survey of English Literature" is strongly urged for all Speech Majors.

they may plan their program wisely. The following subjects are most frequently chosen as combining well with Speech: English, Art, Music, Physical Education.[5] Psychology and foreign languages also are recommended combinations.

Courses in Education, Practice Teaching and other course requirements for the "majors" and "minors" occupy the time of the student in the upper division. Upper division courses for the student majoring in Speech include the following: Theatre Backgrounds, a course dealing with the social background and original methods of production of important dramatic masterpieces, as well as with a history of the theatre; a year's course, Play Production, the first quarter concerned with creative or spontaneous dramatics and designed to meet elementary school needs particularly, the second quarter devoted to an analysis and discussion of the production of plays, the third quarter consisting of laboratory work, in which each student chooses, casts, and directs a play and criticizes constructively the other plays produced during the quarter; two quarters of Speech Correction,[6] with emphasis upon diagnosis of speech difficulties and simple remedial treatment of (Phonetics included); courses in Dramatization, Stage Construction, Voice Analysis, Stage Lighting; a summarizing course entitled "The Teaching of Speech Arts," which is prerequisite to Practice Teaching; and a quarter's practical teaching experience under supervision in a senior high school.[7]

This varied course in speech training is required because of the belief of members of the department that a teacher of speech should be familiar with all phases of oral expression. Electives in the department may all be taken in some special field of speech, (Interpretation, Dramatics, etc.,) but the ideal is to graduate teachers with flexible, well-modulated voices; teachers who can read

[5] Art, Music, Physical Education offer special secondary certificates also, hence a Speech "major" who has a second "major" in one of these three fields is able to secure a position more easily than a graduate who has but one teaching subject.

[6] The third quarter will undoubtedly soon be a requirement, for it seems advisable to give Phonetics as a separate course.

[7] One quarter's work is devoted entirely to practice teaching, the prospective teacher of Speech spending each day from nine to three, (and often later) at the school to which she has been assigned,—teaching classes, observing teaching, conducting a speech clinic, and taking charge of dramatic activity.

aloud intelligently, "re-creating" the thought of the author; teachers who are able to organize and express their own thoughts clearly, vividly, and succinctly. The graduate in Speech should be able to hold his own in argument and yet appreciate other points of view; he should be able to "listen," and should also recognize the truth that in many cases silence is indeed more "golden" than speech. He should be able to diagnose speech difficulties, correct the simple defects and know where to send the more difficult cases for assistance which he can not himself give. The graduate must be able to choose a play worth producing in the schools, and to cast, direct, and produce it with a minimum of expense and a maximum of attention to the growth of the students taking part. He should know the past history of speech education, the present development and future possibilities. Nor should such an ideal be considered Utopian.

The question may arise as to what personal skills are required of the graduate in Speech. Must he be able to act, recite? Must he be an acomplished public speaker and debater?

The teacher of speech should have a high degree of personal efficiency in one or more of these speech activities, and certain courses in the department tend to develop that efficiency.[8] In addition to these courses, however, there are three outstanding college activities which provide very excellent possibilities for the development of individual skills, and all "majors" in Speech are requested to interest themselves in at least one of the three. These activities are: San Jose Players, a very live dramatic organization with democratic ideals of membership;[9] the Verse Speaking Choir,[10] with membership at present limited to "majors" in the department; and the debating group for which all majors are eligible.

[8] Advanced Interpretation, Pantomime, Open Forum, Repertoire, Story-telling, Principles of Acting and Debate.

[9] Although membership is by try-out, there are so many avenues of entrance (Acting, lighting, stage construction, directing, pantomime, costuming, designing, dramatic dancing, dramatic music) that no student seriously interested in becoming a member need be disappointed. Membership is unlimited, but seldom is larger than 100 or 125. Uninterested members are dropped from the organization.

[10] See "The Verse-Speaking Choir," QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, D. Kaucher. February 1931.

It would not be fair to close this paper, however, without calling attention to some of the problems which have arisen during the five years of the department's existence and which are still in the process of being solved.

There is the matter of securing objective speech tests for voice analysis. With the help of a recording machine it will be possible to secure yearly records of all "majors", register individual improvement and obtain a more objective judgment than is possible with personal criticism of individual speech which is gone as soon as uttered. But the need of an adequate speech test is greatly felt.

The department is not yet satisfied with the content of certain courses in speech. To a certain extent, there must be a standardization and the question is—how much? It would be absurd for a group of mathematics teachers to say "We'll call this course Algebra, and then each teacher can include in it whatever he thinks best," yet many speech courses seem organized on that basis. The department at San Jose is trying to work out an adequate course in Public Speaking, for example,—one which will meet the criticism that such courses lack content or are else nothing but "reading" courses. At present, too, a syllabus for a year's course in Speech Education for the General Elementary teacher is being worked out. It is based on the needs of the grade teacher as evidenced by the speech activities she must engage in, when conducting a regular class.

The administration of practice-teaching is another problem, since the college training school does not extend beyond the sixth grade. It is not altogether satisfactory to have student teachers placed in a variety of high schools for the problem of adequate supervision is a real one. The already overburdened English teacher is usually asked to assume this responsibility, and many times her own training is insufficient or old-fashioned. There is likewise the difficulty of arranging that the practice teachers complete their assignment in one quarter when the high schools are organized on the semester basis. The splendid cooperation of the high school principals and their teachers has helped in great measure to make the present arrangment possible, but plans are on foot for a more satisfactory scheme.

Perhaps the greatest problem is the placing of graduates in Speech. The time has not yet come when the speech teacher, as

such, is a recognized member of a high school faculty. She must be prepared to teach other subjects as well. English is usually the subject requested, but the state college does not grant a special secondary credential in English.[11] To teach English in the high schools of California one must secure the regular high school credential, a kind of "blanket" certificate, entitling one to teach any of the regular high school subjects, but requiring a year of graduate work beyond the A. B. The graduate in Speech then is advised to take a fifth year, or to arrange his program at the teachers' college so that he can secure two special certificates. But the situation is not a satisfactory one and will not be until high school principals and superintendents are awakened to the practical value of speech education and to the need of having an adequately trained teacher of speech on every faculty This will take time but the struggle will be worthwhile.

THE PRESENT OUTLOOK FOR SPEECH EDUCATION

AZUBAH J. LATHAM
Teachers College, Columbia University

Owing to recent establishment of full majors in speech for students working for higher degrees in universities and to the granting of diplomas in teachers colleges for skill in teaching speech and speech correction, it seems a fitting time to consider the emergence of the subject from a long period of obscurity, not so much to account for past neglect, confusion, and weakness, as to study some of the present possibilities and perhaps forecast some of the conditions that should make for the successful holding of its place and usefulness in the curriculum. Many have asked for a statement of the nature and scope of the present work in speech education and of the outlook and prospects for those undertaking it in any or all of the varied skills and intricate connections involved.

For many years it seemed best to advise students wishing to major in sepech to combine that subject with some one or more related subjects,—especially music, English, physical education, and

[11] San Jose offers special high school certificates in Art, Commercial Education, Home Making, Industrial Arts, Music, Speech Arts, and Physical Education.

the fine arts of painting and design. This advice was given because there were few positions open to teachers of speech alone. The place of speech in the curriculum was largely that of dramatic coaching and rehearsal of students for public appearance on school programs, and so it was associated with more firmly established courses with which it was bound to be connected in putting on such programs. This connection of various departmental activities was also fostered by the revival of the festival as an educational art project.

While speech has outgrown this dependence upon other departments for its support and opportunity, students whose interest in the subject is largely connected with its entertainment features are still advised to continue the combination with related skills. Positions are seldom available for story-telling alone, for instance,—or for dramatic reading, or even for *euphon English*. A student wishing to feature his own skill in story-telling or oral reading should prepare himself to take charge of children's libraries, of playground activities, of settlement or church club organization and management, of camp dramatics and entertainment, of so-called auditorium teaching; or best of all, if he would use his art for the greatest good to the greatest number,—he should undertake full teaching and supervising in the lower schools where such speech skills can be used to the best advantage in building foundations in speech education. Those interested in euphon English and the aesthetic aspect of utterance are advised to connect and strengthen that specialty with substantial study of linguistics, or of language and literature. The arduous and exacting preparation for the teaching of the science of speech together with speech arts is not for those whose temperaments would lead them into easy, emotional exploitations of personality. Speech education is casting off the incubus of the weakly talented and the superficial.

The prospects are better for those interested in educational dramatics than for the public reader and story-teller, but play making and play producing are still regarded in many schools and colleges as not belonging to the recognized curriculum; consequently, one wishing to teach any part of dramatic education as it relates to speech is advised to prepare himself to take on also other courses in speech, such as public speaking, voice and diction, debating, and speech correction,—or some closely related subject in dramatic pro-

duction, such as painting, music, or dancing. Perhaps the soundest connection at present is with the teaching of one or more languages, and the language most commonly called for in connection with speech is English.

It is interesting to note here that the dramatic method in its recent re-discovery and use has led to the reaching of the highest points in dramatic activity and achievement in many schools by classes in history, Latin, or other languages. New experiments in the use of the dramatic method in many departments, with the consequent enlivening of interest and enthusiasm, has brought about difference of opinion as to where dramatic education as such should be placed. The occasional attempt, however, to put the final responsibility for dramatic art upon other departments than speech have not so far proved satisfactory. The spoken word comes back to its own in dramatic efforts as in life, sooner or later, as the element that holds the drama to its intellectual integrity and highest spiritual values.

Arts often connected with the theatrical, namely—impersonation, platform reading, and the varied forms of entertainment that once were grouped under the abused term elocution are seldom called for nowadays, by those seeking teachers of speech, apart from skills and knowledge not formerly associated with them as closely as at present. The science of phonetics,—even comparative phonetics,—parliamentary law and procedure, the psychology of speech and of speech correction, the technique of the theatre, auditorium program making and rehearsal, pageantry, and festival making are some of the many possible requirements of the teacher of speech. The term speech education covers now a very wide range of information and skill, but even in its widest extent it is striking its roots deep, and is becoming more fully and wisely connected with other sciences and arts, and at the same time more independent in administration; it is no longer merely decorative in purpose, but often highly cultural, and intensely practical.

The requests coming to directors of speech departments and to bureaus of educational service for recommendation of candidates for positions in speech education have been rapidly increasing the past five years, and are still gaining It is not easy to fill all the positions because of the great variety of skills required and because of the increase in the severity of academic preparation expected of

candidates. The most frequent requests are for teachers to have charge of public speaking and play production in high schools and colleges, but recent raising of standards of voice and diction in city and state examinations is bringing marked demand for those who understand voice building and repair, phonetics and the correction of foreign accent, and the correction of speech defects in general. There is an increase also in the positions opening up for speech supervision in the elementary schools and for the very important teaching of speech in normal training classes.

Fortunately the directors of normal schools and colleges are coming to a new understanding of the speech situation in our schools and communities and of its practical importance in education. They are beginning to see the need of fundamental training in speech and in methods of teaching speech for all their students, and they are asking for that most difficult of all help to give *in absentia*, the mapping out of definite and practical courses for normal students throughout their training for the teaching profession. This new emphasis upon speech in the normal school and college is one of the most hopeful signs in the present outlook. Speech habits, whether regarded from the corrective or the positive educational angle, can best be established in early years, the earlier the better; and the teachers upon whom we must depend for this important part of educational fundation are those who have charge of children in the lower schools. From the nature of speech, its constant use, its extreme sensitiveness to influences of all kinds, we can never hope to get far in improving it generally and in making it serve its highest uses by the employment of special teachers and supervisors unaided by teachers in general and by class-room teachers in particular. Consequently it is of major importance that all teachers in training should have not only speech skills but also speech science thoroughly inculcated.

The old-time courses in oratory or expression for students in normal training were largely for the culture of the individual student and had little or no bearing on theory or method in the lower schools. Much of the instruction was given by graduates of special schools of oratory or expression without entrance standards and with no well-grounded educational courses; much of the teaching was artificial and stilted; at its best it resulted usually in belated benefit to the individual pupil, who might perhaps use his

voice better as a result, or be able to read well to the children and coach them for Friday afternoon rhetoricals, but who was wholly unprepared to understand and guide the children's normal speech development and quite in the dark as to the treatment of the many speech defects to be found in any school group.

At the same time, the methods taught in literature, language, reading, etc., were usually given by teachers who had received no training themselves in speech as such. Their ends and aims were largely analytical or at best appreciative, and seldom reached the re-creative and creative processes of mind essential to speech art. Much of their practice was inhibiting to spontaneous and ready speech. There was little sympathy between these two opposing methods and points of view, the forced expressive and the inhibiting, and perhaps fortunately little carry-over from one type of training to the other. The result naturally enough was that the graduates went out to teach using in most cases the out-moded methods by which they themselves had been taught in childhood.

Much of this waste coming from divided and misunderstood effort in teaching speech and related subjects is gradually being saved. The speech teachers now being employed in normal schools and colleges are better grounded in the principles of education and more intelligently prepared in their own field; the teachers of method and of subjects closely related to speech have directly or indirectly arrived at a better understanding of the nature of speech and its relation to mental development and social adjustment. Instead of attempting to make public readers or amateur actors out of normal school students, the teacher of speech is helping them to skill and method in teaching children to tell stories, read well orally, recite from memory, act out plays, and speak intelligently and to the point in public and private. With all these elementary teaching skills applied to material suited to children of different ages, the student in training is given some insight into the educational values of speech, the nature of speech laws, and corrective and developmental possibilities. Besides this practical work in preparation for teaching, as much attention as time will allow is given to the students for their own speech art improvement, and on levels that command respect and even admiration from many who were formerly prejudiced against all such effort.

These happier conditions and practices in the teaching of

speech in the normal classes are greatly strengthened by changes in method in related courses The English and other language teachers and the teachers of method in general are adding the re-creative and the creative activities and purposes to the analytical, critical, and appreciative, and are asking for standards of voice, diction, and action similar to those set up by teachers of speech. We have at last some prospect of sending out graduates with clear purposes and established method who will help to bring about a better ordered and some day a progressive teaching of speech and related subjects throughout our educational system.

It is easy to see that these new requirements of teachers of speech cannot be met by candidates unfamiliar with modern methods in education or by those without a liberal and thorough preparation. There must be knowledge of educational psychology and sociology that will enable the student to understand what his speech teaching may accomplish for his pupils in the working of the mind and in all social adjustments and relations; there must be a rich background of general information as well as knowledge and skill in his own field to enable him to be an intelligent listener and critic of the speech content as well as form in classes in public speaking and in rehearsal of school programs.

The higher positions in speech teaching that were not so long ago held by graduates of special schools only are now requiring a master's degree, preferably from a teachers college; the highest positions call for the degree of doctor of philosophy with special research in the field of speech education, or in the case of positions in the supervision of speech correction the degree of doctor of medicine. The pressure for the stamp of these higher academic achievements is temporarily crippling somewhat the flexibility and growth of speech arts in the profession. There cannot be great and sudden gain without some loss, but the arduousness involved in meeting these new requirements would not present a bar to free progress all along the line were it not for the fact that the nature and scope of work now acceptable to those controlling the award of higher degrees are so largely analytical and critical in nature, allowing little time and less credit for the imaginative and creative activity of mind outside a limited field of the coldly rational and judicial. There is little to encourage originality of artistic effort. We are not applying dramatic and creative methods to any extent in the higher

schools. Not until the old conflict between science and art is replaced,—not by a pacific flabbiness and indifference,—but by full collaboration in conserving and developing the whole individual with all his talents and abilities, can we hope to gain these higher academic reaches without loss of art impulse and spiritual aspiration.

True art—quite as much as true science—is hard and long; we live by it when we do not live by bread alone; it is worthy of recognition and encouragement in all its stages as well as at the top of achievement. We are begining to realize this on the lower levels in our rediscovery and fostering of what is called *the creative mind of the child*—apparently to be put away with other childish things when the child becomes a man;—we give honorary degrees for verse writing, play making and acting,—for recognized skill in any of the arts: how long will it be before we give credit in regular order for all such activities securely supported in the curriculum and in the requirements for the higher degrees? The full integrity of American education will not be established until with all proper safeguards of critical restraint the art of the country—including speech art—is consistently encouraged and supported throughout the educational system.

While temporarily hindering artistic standards and achievements, the result of greater emphasis upon the scientific requirements in speech education has been particularly helpful to those interested in speech correction, which is coming from under the control of charlatans, and rapidly advancing to a place of high respect and usefulness. The need for thoroughly prepared teachers in this field was brought out at a recent conference in Washington called to consider child welfare, where the data presented concerning deficient children in this country showed that next to improper nourishment the outstanding deficiency is that of inadequate speech.

It appears that there are one million children in this country with its free education who are handicapped by speech defects, more than twice the number of the mentally retarded. The six million under-nourished children suffer a physical handicap that is sad to contemplate but that can be relieved by suitable and possible measures; the million young speech defectives suffer social and spiritual handicaps beyond all power of imagination to appre-

hend, and beyond our present preparedness to relieve. Here is an obvious duty and immediate educational problem of tremendous importance to the nation as well as to the individual.

The supervision of speech correction considered apart from normal speech improvement and speech art development has been regarded by some educators as belonging to those concerned with the education of the mentally retarded or defective only, but the data presented at the conference on child welfare brought out the fact that more than half the children classed as speech defectives cannot be classed also with the mentally defective or retarded. Moreover, recent studies of that most unfortunate speech defect, stuttering, revealed that some stutterers belong to the supernormal, and many to the otherwise normal groups rather than to the subnormal. It seems, then, that the duty of reëducating in speech cannot be carried wholly by those teaching and supervising the subnormal pupils. Indeed, since speech defects of all kinds as well as speech inadequacies are to be observed in any group from the nursery school through graduate schools of universities, we are forced to conclude that at present we can care for these unfortunates only by having intelligent attention given to them wherever we find them.

Obviously, however, the place to attend to habit formation is in the lower schools when possible, and the earlier the better. This fact as it relates to speech was well understood two thousand years ago when the education of the orator was the highest aim of education. Quintillian advised against the employment of nurses with barbarous speech. We have not profited as we might by his admonition. We are very careless concerning the speech of those who have the home care of infants and certainly not careful enough of the speech of teachers employed in nursery schools and kindergartens. Teachers thus employed should have the best possible speech art and speech science available that they may be fitted to influence and direct the children in the early stages of speech habit formation. This is the time to teach courteous and responsive listening, and gentle but fearless speech. Faults such as baby talk, lisping, whining, etc., should be overcome in these early years. The foundation should be laid as intelligently as understanding and skill can accomplish it for all the speech uses of the children later on. The sly child should experience the strengthening joy of com-

munication through speech; the loud and quick of speech should be taught—without negative inhibition—"to hold the tongue till meaning lie behind to set it wagging."

The early years give best opportunity also for the arousing of admiration of good speech. An ideal built up early and held as a definite aim is more powerful than drill in establishing good listening and speaking habits. The aim here as in other good habit formation is for intelligent awareness and control without loss of naturalness and spontaneity. Songs, rhythmic games, rhymes and jingles, folk tales—told by the children themselves as much as possible—conversations, dramatizations, repetitions without monotony,—all such delightful speech activities carried on as naturally as in the most cultured homes but with the added understanding of their aims and values, together with the powerful influence of the skillful teacher speaking *with* instead of at or for the children, can do much to ground youngsters in satisfying and even charming modes of speech.

But speech habits well started do not always continue without fostering care in the higher schools. Inhibitions may be set up in high school students by sudden shocks from sharp fault-finding or unjust criticism. Indistinct and ineffective speech may become a habit through fear of being found ignorant. Any method or practice that tends to disturb natural desire to communicate experience is likely to make for inhibitions and manners of inadequate expression that later teaching may not overcome. Speech more than all other modes of human expression is influenced by change in social situation. Any requirement of a student that throws him into wrong self-consciousness will disturb speech immediately and may disturb it permanently. These facts should be given most careful attention in planning and giving out lessons and in conducting oral recitations. The pupil speaker should be helped in every way to feel ready and eager to speak when called upon, whether to answer or ask questions, or to show the result of his study in sustained recitation. "The love of truth and the desire to communicate it without loss" must replace the all too prevalent fear of being found ignorant or ill prepared before we can hope to have ready, audible, and satisfying speech from students in the higher forms.

DEMOCRACY OR ARISTOCRACY IN OUR ASSOCIATION

A. B. WILLIAMSON
New York University

WHEN the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH came into existence less than two decades ago there were more than the proverbial two and seventy jarring sects of speech instruction. The public-speaking teacher was isolated from other members of his profession, teaching in his own way, often without scholarly or scientific basis. There was relatively little scientific research in the field of speech and few scholarly publications. Out of this chaos the ASSOCIATION brought order. It brought the jarring sects together and showed them that they had interests and problems in common. Leaders in the field, men of broad experience, professors of public speaking in colleges and universities of high standing, stimulated interest in scholarly research and in the scientific study of speech. These leaders impressed upon the greater number of speech teachers the fact that their welfare, as well as that of speech instruction, depended upon their self-improvement, and upon their contributions to the field of speech studies. The ASSOCIATION arranged conventions in which ideas were exchanged, in which methods were discussed and criticized. It established the QUARTERLY JOURNAL which, by bringing the results of research and of teaching methods before the profession at large, helped better to standardize the methods of the profession as a whole. The magazine helped to raise the speech teacher's general level of knowledge, aided in bringing about greater unity of feeling and of purpose, stimulated greater interest in scholarly pursuits, and, by the nature of its articles, gained for us the respect of scholars and administrators outside our own field. In these various ways has the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH brought order out of chaos, with the result that our profession has gained academic respect.

While this advance is due largely to the interest and devotion of the whole membership of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION, it is probably even more largely due to wise and devoted leadership on the part of the group of organizers and those who have since taken the

lead in our national affairs. These are the men who now largely make up the personnel of our Council, men still relatively young, still active and still, to a large extent, productive scholars and experienced college administrators.

While most of our members have seemed fully satisfied with our continued progress under this guidance, nevertheless, a movement of opposition to this leadership has arisen, an opposition made up of a small minority of our members, but formidable because organized. The apparent purpose and methods of this movement seem to strike at the fundamental principles which have developed our ASSOCIATION into what it is.

In the growth of a vital organization it is inevitable that from time to time, disturbing situations should arise and, perhaps, even grow into crises. There is nothing in the situation to cause us too great alarm or excitement, for re-adjustment after a crisis often means a more healthy condition. However, we should realize that we are faced with a serious problem which must be thoroughly considered and solved, if the ASSOCIATION'S future is to be constructive and wholesome. In part, the situation is a result of our leaders' constructive encouragement of the younger members of our profession to activity and service. In consequence, some of these talented young teachers have, unfortunately, taken themselves too seriously. After having accomplished, in some cases, a limited amount of good work, they have begun to develop delusions of grandeur, to believe they have arrived, that they are the peers or even the superiors of the officers and members of the Council who are guiding the affairs of the ASSOCIATION, and that they merit any honor which can be bestowed upon them. It seems that some of them cannot be reconciled to waiting years, perhaps decades, for the slower recognition and honor that comes through sound accomplishment and scholarship; they must be recognized at once! Since the past presidents and other members of the Council are more conservative about standards of accomplishments, there is little to be hoped for in immediate honor through them. But that is no final barrier, for the tendencies of our time place in the insurgents' hands a powerful weapon, democracy, a supposed rule of the majority, based upon party alignments, organization, and favors. Applying the principles of democracy, a good organizer, brought up in the able school of fraternity politics, can line up his friends

and their friends, gather in a few malcontents, a few adventurous spirits, and a few legitimate revolutionaries, form a machine, pass their own resolutions, elect their slate, and perhaps amend a constitution. If the machine is sufficiently successful, it can throw out of power its formidable adversaries, thus opening the approach to more power.

This would seem to be exactly the move of the newly-formed political machine, for the attack has centered on the ASSOCIATION'S Council, composed of the officers, the past presidents, past editors, past executive secretaries, and a few other representatives of sectional conferences and of definite divisions of our field. The movement seems directed largely against the past presidents, who have the largest representation. The whispered charges made against them are that they are "gray-beards," that they are too paternalistic in their attitude, that they control too largely the policies of the ASSOCIATION, that they determine who shall be honored by election to office, that they obstruct progressive legislation and retard the ASSOCIATION'S onward march. The open charge is that the ASSOCIATION'S government, in the Council, is not sufficiently representative, that there is too large a membership of past presidents. As might be expected, the proposed reform seems to be a constitutional amendment, limiting the number of past presidents, editors and executive secretaries and having the Council more fully representative of geographical divisions and of the majority of the membership—in other words, a completely democratic government.

The results of the so-called democratic system are only too evident in our contemporary municipal government, where control is in the hands of a highly organized minority—presumably the great majority—where rewards are not necessarily based upon previous public service, but upon party alignment; where the basis of election is not a standard of greatest fitness, but power over the masses, developed largely through favors; where, as a result, great numbers are placed in office whose interests are not primarily the public weal but self-seeking, and legislation is too often based not upon legitimate public need, but upon self-interest and the repaying of favors.

And there is no reason to believe that the results, if the movement towards democracy proves successful, are going to be any happier for the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH. While

the organization of our ASSOCIATION is doubtless not perfect, it is highly questionable if the organizing of political machines, with their attendant democratic weaknesses, is for us the way of progress.

As a spokesman for a great number of members who see the welfare of their profession interrelated with that of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION, and as one who has never been a member of the Council, the writer feels that he is in a position to view this present political situation objectively and impartially and to present for the consideration of the membership at large certain arguments in defence of the existing order.

In regard to the advocacy of more general representation of special interests and of geographic divisions, it might be said that government by the majority is out of accord with academic practice. A minority made up of the experienced and accepted members of a university staff, decide its policies. Generally, one must reach professorial rank before becoming a voting member of a faculty, and the greater number of untried, less experienced, sometimes less capable teachers have no voice in deciding the policies of the institution. This is as it should be, for it is inconceivable that in a university the assistants, assistant instructors, and instructors should get together, form a political machine, elect deans and deparment heads, and decide teaching, curricular, and administrative problems. In the government of learned societies, the university system is reflected. Scholars know that their welfare can best be entrusted to the wisest of their members, men of proved worth. A learned society is, therefore by general acceptance usually an aristocracy.

There is, as a matter of fact, a great similarity between the objectives and methods of a great university and those of a learned society. The latter is inextricably interwoven with the former and cannot, therefore, successfully depart from the university's approved practices. The university gains its reputation largely through the reputation of the scholars it employs, in its major positions, through the standards of scholarship it maintains, and through the quality of its output. The learned society is in the same position. As no college of repute can maintain its self-respect or its reputation at large if it places in its important positions men who lack academic standing, so no learned society can hope to main-

tain a sound reputation if its activities are not guided by the recognized men in its field. Its reputation, like that of the university, is a reflection of the reputations of the accepted scholars who are guiding its activities, of the general scholarship of its members, and of what it does constructively to advance learning and teaching. Today many universities are being subjected to criticism because of superficial, unsound expansion. Similarly, an academic society the achievements of which are not of a quality to be accepted by any impartial group of scholars cannot hope to hold the esteem of the teaching profession as a whole. From the academic viewpoint, therefore, those activities are apt to be most genuinely productive which are supervised by men with a combination of the greatest knowledge, the most experience, and the highest standards.

It is but natural that we find the greater percentage of such men coming from the better-known universities and colleges, for, while there are notable exceptions in every field, in general, the better men gravitate to the better institutions. And the fact that the greater number of leaders in the learned societies should come from outstanding institutions is in thorough keeping with sound academic practice. Government by representatives of numbers or of districts is not the traditional method of scholarship. It is rather government by representatives of the widest experience, the soundest achievement, and the greatest wisdom.

The NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH, if it is to be as successful in the future as it has been in the past, cannot depart from this practice. The ASSOCIATION has not only its own self-respect to maintain, but also its reputation among other academic societies. It must maintain this with administrators and with scholars in other fields. As teachers, we are members of an extremely conservative profession, where no one and no subject is too readily approved, where standards are exceedingly high, and where nothing can be fully accepted until it has measured up to those standards. We know that, we can never relax our efforts to prove to our administrators and our colleagues in other departments that our standards are as high as theirs and our scholarship as good. Only thus can we earn and keep their respect. Only thus, too, can our NATIONAL ASSOCIATION earn and maintain respect. It must be *known* as being guided by men and women of accepted scholarship, and of high position in schools, colleges, and universities of enviable reputation.

The ASSOCIATION has been so guided in the past. In general, members have not been made president or placed on the Council unless they have been administrators of reputable speech departments. In addition, with but few exceptions, they have had records of sound scholarly production. Most of them had gained administrative support for their studies and established departments of speech in their respective institutions, often in the face of criticism and opposition,—no simple task. These are the strong men of our profession, and the ASSOCIATION showed sound judgment in choosing them as its leaders. In general, from the character of the men chosen for president, it would seem that the question had been asked each year, "Who is the man best fitted by training, scholarship, experience, reputation, and devotion to the interests of our profession to administer the affairs of the ASSOCIATION for the coming year?" and it would seem that the question usually had been answered satisfactorily.

It is this group of best men for the year which now largely constitutes the personnel of the Council, than whom, surely, we could find none better qualified by training and experience for the permanent guidance of our ASSOCIATION. From all points of view, is it not the part of wisdom that we protect ourselves from ever having our affairs administered by any group of lesser reputation or experience, no matter how "up-and-coming"?

Moreover, the past presidents have personally less to gain by their continued administration of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION than has any other group of members. Advertising and prestige have less value for them than for most of us, for their teaching positions are already the best that can be had in our field. Their activities are not engaged in with a hope of any new honor the ASSOCIATION can confer upon them; they have already received all that is to be given. Their interest in the ASSOCIATION as proved by the character of their activities in the past, is primarily in furthering the development of standards of scholarship, in helping to improve methods of instruction and research, in providing adequate instruction for future teachers, in developing graduate studies, and in stimulating an interest in self-improvement among the members. With this in view, then, when we consider who is most capable of administering our affairs, may we not conclude that, even if we were to put aside the pertinent questions of untried capacities, lack

of experience, and meager reputation, the judgments and enactments of men who are free to look at questions more or less impersonally are more to be trusted than those of men for whom there is some personal advantage to be gained in the forming of a political machine in an academic society, or than those of the advocate of questionable expansion, to make a job for himself?

Further, what other group of individuals in the ASSOCIATION as well equipped, simply from the standpoint of experience, as these very past presidents could we possibly pick to minister to our needs? Though it is, probably, advisable that the Council maintain, through special representatives, a touch with the interests and problems of various sections of the country and of various specialized fields within our profession, nevertheless, it is highly questionable if our general needs and problems would ever be as well handled by a Council with a majority of such specialized representation as they would be by a Council composed predominantly of these men of broad administrative experience in the affairs of the ASSOCIATION and of universities.

What is it that we, the great number who make up the membership of the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH, want and expect of our national society? It is safe to say that we desire, more than anything else, a smooth-running, central organization which will aid in furthering all our professional interests, an organization we can point to with pride, one that others will respect, one that will give prestige to our profession as a whole. Then, too, we are interested in having that ASSOCIATION further scholarship, by creating opportunities for real scholars and by making it possible that their findings become useful through publication and other means. Also, we are interested in what the ASSOCIATION can give us by way of exchange of ideas in the solution of our various problems. When we go to a NATIONAL ASSOCIATION convention, it is with the primary purpose of getting something, the experience of the most experienced, the methods of the best teachers, the systems of the most successful administrators of departments, the scholarly approach of the best scholars, the inspiration of contact with men who are doing big things in our field. These are the things we want, and no inferior substitutes.

There is one product we want not at all, and that is politics. The less possibility of politics there can be, the better we shall be

satisfied. We do not want to go on year after year being buttonholed in corridors, told how rotten things are, and solicited to vote for so-and-so for the nominating committee. We want to see placed in power only those who have the ability, the experience, and the professional devotion to see that our professional and scholarly interests are conserved and furthered, none other, and we want to be bothered just as little as possible with the mechanics of selection.

Unfortunately, we shall have to spend more and more time in politics, if the movement towards democracy continues. If the movement is successful—which does not seem possible, if the good sense and the primary interests of the greater number of members can be counted upon—after a given number of years of service on the Council our distinguished past and present officers will be relegated to the discard, and the guidance of the ASSOCIATION will be shifted to a later crop of past officers, many of whom will, perhaps, be elected by political machines. These, with the help of a growing group of representatives from state and sectional conferences, will shape our policies and arrange our programs, while our outstanding men at Dartmouth, Michigan, Southern California, Pennsylvania, Cornell, Wisconsin, etc., sit and twiddle their thumbs. The idea is ridiculous. We need the guidance of our present leaders, and the more there are of that calibre, the better for us.

We shall be wise to guard ourselves against any democracy that will discard the most fit and place in power men who have not had sufficient experience to guide us, have not risen high enough in their profession to bring us reputation and respect, and have not, perhaps, focussed their attention sufficiently upon sound scholarship. We need, also, to guard our talented younger teachers against endeavoring to pull themselves up by the boot-straps of opportunism and advertising. The temptation, even for the talented, to take the easier road of expediency rather than the steeper climb of sound scholarship is a strong one, and to permit them to take it will, in the end, be as disastrous for them as individuals as it will be for us as an ASSOCIATION.

If we are going to revise our constitution, instead of weakening our organization by making its government more representative of sections and of numbers and of special interests, let us strengthen it by making it more representative of scholarship and experienced

teaching, so that those who aspire to seats of honor will learn to rest their hope solely on the quality of their work, on sound scholarship, teaching, and administration, such as will be accepted not only by their friends in the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH, but by any group of unbiased, capable scholars in any field. For our own reputation in the academic world, and for our own protection within our profession, we must continue to have an organization to bring us respect and wise guidance. If we are going to revise our constitution, let us perfect it so that lobbying and ward politics at our annual meetings will become virtually impossible. Let us see to it that those who can contribute most are not ejected from the council chamber to make room for the less fit. So long as the administration of our interests is in the hands of our most experienced, best reputed, and wisest members we need have no fear for the future welfare and progress of the ASSOCIATION. Our greatest fear should be that we may be unable to guard ourselves against administration by those less worthy and capable than the very "gray-beards" who have been so largely responsible for making the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF SPEECH what it is today.

THE OLD DEBATING SOCIETY*

JAMES GORDON EMERSON
Stanford University

THERE are three pictures that I wish to draw for you in connection with my subject this afternoon: first, I want to consider with you, briefly, the nature and status in the student scheme of things of the old literary or debating society of thirty or forty years ago; then, I want to trace certain developments which have taken place with respect to debating since that time; and finally, I shall ask you to look with me at the possibilities suggested by certain types of debating society extant and to all appearances flourishing in certain parts of the world today.

Imagine yourself a student in a mid-western college of some two thousand enrollment in the year 1900. A broad walk traverses

* (From a paper delivered at the Eighth annual meeting of the Pacific Forensic League, University of Washington, Seattle, April 7, 1931.)

a green lawn and leads up to the lofty columns of the portico of a dignified and stately hall. It is a Friday evening, let us say, in early spring, and students in groups of two and three and ten and a dozen come drifting down the sidewalk; and in lively conversation, or in bantering give and take or loitering or strolling, calling cheerily from group to group, pass on into the building. There are perhaps, all told, four hundred of them, out of a student body of two thousand, who come thus gayly along the walk, usually dressed in their Sunday best; and if you look at them closely, or examine into their thoughts and feelings, you will find there the same excitement, the same undercurrent of something good about to happen, that today occupies the mind of the Stanford young man on his way in a big car to a San Francisco week-end party. The literary society, indeed, was in those days the end-of-the-week diversion of hosts of young men and women in our colleges, the thing they looked forward to through the humdrum of study and recitation, the dessert to the intellectual meal, the frosting on the delectable cake of sociability.

No screech of auto siren rends the ambient air of spring. No cars are parked in hideous disarray along the campus curbs. There is no smell of gasoline; no shrieking of brakes; no grinding of gears or no hum of exhaust, no raucous loud speaker or wail of saxophone to disturb the tranquil quiet of the peaceful scene. The ivy climbs unharried along the classic walls. "Unvexed runs the river to the sea."

Once inside the building these groups climb the stairways and, arriving at the top floor, disappear into various rooms, for the most part rather sumptuously furnished. Within these rooms the scene is one of bustle and preparation, as busy officers lay scarfs of green or brown velvet over the president's desk and the speaker's stand, arrange the necessary documents and records, hang the pennants and other club paraphernalia about the walls. All this time other groups are arriving, there is lively greeting back and forth; clustering in conversation here, or about the piano, where would-be tenors and bullfrog basses and those who merely aspire to turn the pages of the music, burst forth into occasional semblance of song. Others recline lazily in the open windows looking down upon the green of the twilight campus.

As the twilight deepens and the bells in the tower chime the

hour of eight, the late comers hurry into the building, the idlers slide from their places in the windows, and the chairman lifts his gavel. An expression of expectancy is on the faces of the company. The gavel descends. A meeting of the old-fashioned college literary society is under way.

I shall not describe the program of such a society, except to say that it usually consisted of devotionals, a musical number, (that is, if the society had been successful in its rushing of some person talented on the piano or the violin); papers and speeches upon topics of interest, a short reading or skit, and the society paper or scandal sheet. Such matters would take up perhaps half the program. The other half was invariably devoted to a debate in which four or six members would take part. The program concluded with the critic's report, which was generally entertaining and always frank.

A five minutes recess would then be declared, during which time guests took their departure, and songs such as "Solomon Levi," "Nut Brown Maiden," "The Bulldog on the Bank," and the too-high pitched "Juanita" were sung. With much rapping of his gavel the president would finally call the members to order, and then around the room they would march, hands on shoulders, single file, singing a society fellowship song.

The business meeting was run strictly according to Roberts' Rules of Order. There was much give and take. Motions of all sorts were proposed. These were amended and speeches would be made upon them. Members would rise to points of order. The chair would rule. The ruling would be appealed from. It was great fun, it was great training in parliamentary usage, and it was splendid exercise in rough and tumble speaking. The election of officers, which took place twice a year, was the occasion for speeches of all sorts, upon the candidates and sometimes not upon the candidates. There was no little of political manipulation and arrangement. I recall especially the sport that always attended the nominating and electing of the sergeant-at-arms, usually the retiring "prexy," who was the butt of much of the horseplay of business meetings.

To what extent were such debating and literary societies prevalent a generation ago, and to what extent do they exist now?

We know of course that such societies existed in great num-

bers a generation ago; indeed I doubt if there was a college or university in the United States fifty years ago without one or more of them. We are all familiar with the famous societies of the University of Michigan and those of the University of Wisconsin. The great annual "joint debate" between the two leading societies of the latter university was one of the institutions of the middle west twenty or thirty years ago. This debate was prepared for months in advance; incredibly detailed briefs were drawn on the question; and great crowds filled the hall to capacity and overflowing. A friend of mine speaks of a society at Haverford College in the early nineties which seemed to him to have taken its roots in the very soil of the college itself, a purely indigenous thing, strong, vital, important—a major interest of the entire student body. There were eight or ten at my own midwestern college, and eight at the college where I later taught. I recall visits to neighboring colleges, Coe, Cornell, Morningside, Drake, State Teachers, Parsons, Simpson, Grinnell, and being shown the generously furnished rooms which were the homes of their literary societies. At the University of Iowa they were firmly entrenched as late as 1910.

Although it is at this point that I stand especially subject to correction, I believe that I am safe in saying that since those early days there has been a great decline in the number and strength of these societies, and that nothing of a like nature has come to take their place. Certainly this is true of many universities; I know it is to be true of at least two state colleges; and I believe it to be true of the great majority of other colleges throughout the land. In this connection, permit me to repeat the findings as revealed in the answers to a questionnaire recently sent out by Professor White of the University of Nebraska. To the question "Do you still have active LOCAL literary or debating societies," 83 colleges replied in the affirmative and 72 in the negative. Of the affirmative total, however, 8 are described as somewhat inactive, but twice that number, i. e., 16 are said to be nourishing; three others are recently dead and one is "worse than dead." Three teachers of debating complain that newer campus organizations have crowded out the older forensic societies; five speak of newly promoted forensic clubs.

Now, in considering the causes for this decline in greater detail, I shall have much to say about the decline of debating itself.

Looking back a quarter of a century, I believe that there are few who will gainsay that from the standpoint of fundamental student interest we were better off then than we are now. What are the causes for this falling off in interest?

1. Broadly speaking, of course, as we have noted, the whole character of American life has changed. I need not recount for you that scene, how the automobile, the movie, the radio have brought within the reach of hosts of individuals, entertainment, amusement, and even instruction of all sorts; how less and less individuals and groups have had to rely for entertainment, upon themselves; how the character of thought has turned sophisticated and in many cases cynical; how the so-called refinements of life and social intercourse, no small factors in a worthwhile parliamentary procedure, have been dispensed with in favor of an ever increasing frankness, and easy, if sometimes, brusque, informality. It is a platitude oft repeated but a truism nevertheless, that people are no longer satisfied with the simple pleasures, the simple thrills, the sentimentalities. But, more particularly as it affects our problem, groups no longer have to provide their own diversion. The concern of the week-end, now, is not what to *do,* but what to *choose.*

2. In the second place, as previously suggested, not only has student life reflected this change in the outer world, but student life has become more of a counterpart of life at large than it formerly was. The emphasis upon practicality in education, the broadening of the conception of education from preparation for the ministry, and the professions, and for public life, to include a sort of apprenticeship for the trades and business, has brought into the colleges a type of student whose dreams of success soar not to the forum or the pulpit, but to the swivel chair and the blue print. The strong silent man has come into vogue; the pusher of buttons, the manipulator of statistics, the cold-blooded searcher after facts. His romanticism is not the romanticism of words and periods, but of charts and diagrams. He is, indeed, impatient of discussion and chafes for action and is distrustful of the wiles of those who talk. Moreover, the rise in the economic status of the average American family has made possible the sending to college of students without the broad cultural background of the students of two generations ago, students who, as William Allen White once put it, are "strangers to the academic life—as isolated and remote

as the wild savages of the forest from all that went with the cloistered life in our old American collegiate tradition."

With respect to amusements, the student is even more like his prototype on the outside. Canned entertainment confronts him everywhere, and the automobile has broadened his campus until today it includes the distant city with its theatres and its cabarets, and the distant beaches and mountain playgrounds.

3. I believe there is a good deal of support for the proposition that the coming of fraternities has had much to do with the decline of the debating society and the interest in debating. And this is so, because, in spite of all our idealizing about the motives which brought students to college in former times, I believe it is a fact that much of the popularity of the old literary society grew out of the desire for social prestige and the social urge. It afforded for the student that peculiarly attractive opportunity for social mingling which goes with a sort of exclusiveness founded upon merit, it brought him in a special and wholly satisfying way in contact with selected kindred spirits; and, in those days, it gave him a definite position in the college community. It was something for him to *belong* to, to identify himself with, or, what was more important to *be* identified with by his fellows. All of them had pins, and some of them indulged the luxury of engraved stationery. The fraternity, of course, gave all these things, and it offered in addition a greater abundance of them, and a firmer assurance of them. It offered dancing for picnicking, and it had a secret ritual and a Greek name. And what is more important, it offered the student a campus home. Against all these advantages the literary society was unable to compete.

4. It may or may not be significant that as debating societies went out departments of public speaking came in. Whether the public speaking class supplanted the society, or whether it strengthened it in the last agonizing moments of an inevitable demise is a question I am not prepared to answer here. At least this can be said, that the student finds today in the public speaking class much of what he formerly sought for in the debating society. In fact, I venture to remark that public speaking classes are successful in the degree that they simulate something of the old group spirit of the literary society. In my own experience, I find that the more students are able to forget that they are in a classroom

making recitations, the more they come to know each other as members of a sort of family, the more they are able to engender the club spirit where one finds and makes friends, and a kind of camaraderie grows up;—the more successful does their speaking become, the more nearly may I rate them a success as a class.

5. I suppose it is a dangerous question to ask, but I often wonder to what extent the advent of debating squads is responsible for the decline of debating societies. It may seem strange to this generation of debaters, but in my day, at least in my college, the students were fiercely resentful of any sort of faculty control of debate. The activity was our own, and we would have scouted the notion that any one member of the faculty might properly or with wisdom, have directed us. The growth of the debate squad to its present large proportions has unquestionably, hastened the end of the debate societies. How can one make time for society promotion and leadership whose days are as filled with intercollegiate debating as are those of our modern super-squads?

6. Finally, and in the broad sense again, student interest has shifted away from debating and the debating society to the extent that it has because these activities do not figure so strongly as formerly among those items labelled "the things that are being done." This thought introduces a phenomenon of college life that has always interested me profoundly. I venture the opinion of one who has seen student life in action for some twenty years, that the vast majority of students never question their enthusiasm for, or interest in, the things about the college that are "being done." A co-ed, for example, will go ino ecstasies over baseball, or track, although she may not know a hurdle from a haystack and thinks a squeeze play has something to do with a hot date. She gets all the thrills at a football rally which she has expected to get simply because she has expected to get them and it has never occurred to her that she would not. At Vassar, glory is in carrying the daisy chain and at Barnard in dancing in the Greek games. Publications is the big word at one college and all the students bright and dumb, big and small, serious and lazy, go about the campus with reporter's pencils behind their ears seeking interviews and talking of leads, and galleys, and yearning for a "scoop." No redblooded college student ever questions his love for football, or crew, or water polo, though there must be many who have little innate interest in some of these activities if they could but see their own minds.

At one institution it was the annual oratorical contests among the eight societies that was spoken of in hushed whispers. And such a turnout as there was on the part of those wanting to write orations, and at the contest itself! It was talked over and thought about by all classes of students weeks in advance, and the winner was immortalized in song and story, and got his picture in a conspicuous place in the college annual. I am afraid I have to say that most of the orations were dreadful, and most of the orators lacking in that divine quality which catches and holds an audience. Yet, two thousand five hundred people annually jammed the hall to listen in rapt attention from eight thirty until twelve o'clock, to these performers. Of the many students, both boys and girls, who flocked to my office with orations in preparation for this contest, I venture to say that not half, not one third, were doing it for any other reason than that everybody else seemed to be doing it and enjoying it, and it never occurred to them to do other than enjoy it too.

So that, I should say, formerly many students debated, if for no other reason, because it was the thing to do. And the student enjoyed it, because it had never occurred to him to regard it otherwise and, indeed, because once having taken that attitude toward it, he found in it qualities which *were* to be enjoyed, if one looked at it in the right way. He enjoyed it, and benefitted from it, and it benefitted from him; and herein lies the great opportunity of the colleges. Young men in colleges can and do become interested in things they would not otherwise be interested in. They can and do find enjoyments—lasting enjoyments—they would not otherwise find.

Now, as I have said, this "inertia," this drift in the notion of what is "being done" has been away from debating and in the direction of other activities. Students today have no awe of forensics, although they greatly envy—when they see it on display in student body meetings—forensic ability. Certainly there is no awe of the orator as in the old days. And as for the debaters themselves, I believe they go into debating with their eyes open to its defects as well as its advantages, not the least of which, in their estimation, is the debating tour.

And today, of course, the student body at large feels little loyalty to the debating teams, and what is more significant, takes

but little part in the activity of debating itself. They may come to debates occasionally, and occasionally rise to ask a question or make a point in the open forum discussion following some debates; but this is a far cry from the interested participation every Friday night in the proceedings of the old fashioned debating club.

The result of all this is that the organization of debating has undergone a change which I might characterize as toward greater paternalism. This trend has been evidenced, as I have pointed out, in the increasing initiative passing into the hands of specialized faculty groups and it has been evidenced in the breaking down of what were formerly debating leagues or councils within the university, bodies made up of representatives elected by the debating societies and whose chief business it was to handle intercollegiate debate. It is true that the students still control debating in the sense that it is a part of their student self-government. But this is a control not by the debaters themselves, not by groups of voluntary associations interested in debating, but by the student body as a whole, in its collective or impersonal capacity. All credit to student bodies for recognizing the activity as of value, and for providing for it in their budgets, but let us not confuse such contribution, efficient and practical though it is, with the active and personally concerned support of other days. We have gained in efficiency, but have we lost something more fundamental, more valuable?

We see growing squads, and in many instances growing audiences, and that, of course, is the immediate answer to my anxious question. But there are times when I cannot escape the feeling that this progression from voluntary student effort to supervision and stimulus from above; from large scale interest, to the businesslike subsidizing of a specialized group; from activity within the college to activity without, represents something like a race up a tree and a finding oneself out on a limb. We are reaching out to our neighbor on the other tree, and because in many cases, he isn't so far out on his limb as yet, he can give us some measure of comfort and support. But just what are we to do when our intercollegiate schedule has become so extensive that the novelty of intercollegiate discussion has worn off? I grant that there is always a special curiosity to see how the man from "over there," thinks and acts—but isn't there a limit to the degree to which that curio-

sity can be exploited? At any rate, "over there" seems constantly to be getting farther and farther away. Even England is wearing out with some of us, and now they are sending over Germans and Magyars and Turks.

In the old days, intercollegiate debating was in a sense the outward flowering of what was going on within, an intense forensic activity within and between the local groups. Today, all too frequently, we have nothing *but* intercollegiate activity and a growing indigestion of that. Intercollegiate athletics can at least justify themselves on the ground that they supply funds for the promotion of a vigorous intramural program. But intercollegiate debating is practically the *only* debating in some universities. I am told in answer that the energy formerly put into the hit or miss efforts of the societies is now finding a more perfect medium in the intercollegiate squads. But a squad consisting of twenty-five or thirty men, displacing societies accounting for from fifty to four hundred, is a situation calling for further explanation than the easy one just considered. A system that has place only for men with sufficient ability to appear on intercollegiate teams, is a system which cannot be defended on any valid educational ground.

Now, there certainly must be in our colleges and universities men and women who could profit by the sort of training which a debating society could give. Expression through speech and disputation is a method of education as old as the history of thought itself. It is fundamentally necessary to the clarifying and broadening growth of thought, as John Dewey has long since pointed out. Disputation builds keenness of analysis and balanced judgment; it builds intellectual sinew and it promotes understanding of one's fellows.

Moreover, I not only think that there is a need for this sort of thing in our student bodies, but I also think that there is something of a desire. I see evidences of this in the ever increasing enrollment in speech courses, and I see it more especially in the growing tendency toward the formation of discussion clubs within certain limited fields.

I think I can draw the inference that modern youth has not outgrown the old desires perhaps, but that it has outgrown the old forms. Multiple distraction, in college, stands as an almost insurmountable barrier in the way of those desires, but there is a

possibility, even so, that this barrier may be conquered if we can but hit upon the proper form. It is with this thought in mind that I want to direct your attention for a few moments to the possibilities suggested by certain types of discussion forum extant, and apparently flourishing, in the world today.

1. First, the literary society, so tenderly sketched in the opening paragraphs of this paper. Is there a place for it? I think not; its delights were too simple, its make-believe too unrealistic for this iconoclastic age. Let us fold it fondly away in its moth balls, while the older ones among us shed a sentimental tear as we turn us away from a glory such as loud speaker and cinema tape can never reproduce.

2. The conventional debating club which meets once a week to hear a debate and nothing more? Well—not at Stanford at least, for we have within the last two years pronounced "requiescat" over that. Certainly, debating must form the solid backbone of any such organization, but we must get rid of the notion, in the student mind, that debating clubs are made up of a few contentious cranks who do nothing but dispute.

3. Debating tournaments between fraternities and other student groups? At least this has proved to be a tremendous success at Oregon State College and Washington State College, it has recently been introduced at Iowa State College, and I believe is in operation in other institutions as well.

4. The open debating squad in which all who are interested may have membership, and in which the varsity performers provide the leadership and the talent? Such a plan is proving to be a great success at U. C. L. A. It is my understanding, however, that there is also existent at U. C. L. A. a thriving discussion forum, a consideration of which should prove of value in connection with what I shall hereafter propose.

5. I am not certain to what extent such a forum, or combination of squad and forum, could be modeled upon the well-exploited principle of the Oxford Union. Note that the latter is *all*-Oxford in concept. There is more of an appeal in this idea than inheres in the thought of membership in this or that small-gauge society. Instead of naming our societies after ancient Greeks and poets and presidents and college deans, perhaps naming them after universities would add to their attracting powers. At any

rate, when dramatic interests at Stanford ceased programing plays as presented by "Sword and Sandals," or "Ram's Head," or "Masquers," and began using the heading "Stanford Dramatic Council presents" there was a noticeable increase in the size of their audiences.

Militating against the success of the Union idea however are the differences in temperament, intellectual background, and governmental institutions of the English and American peoples. The Oxford Union is almost an integral part of the English political system. A member of the Oxford Union, if he is successful, looks forward to a career in politics; the American debater usually does not. Moreover, even if he did, success in debating is perhaps less of an earnest of success in politics, than is success in shaking hands and kissing babies, making the right kind of friends, striking the right pose when being photographed for the tabloids, and giving out the right kind of interviews. Men get into politics for other reasons than good debating. Some of them get into high office because they have been successful in saying nothing at all. Oratory has on occasion swayed the quadrennial party convention into nominating this man or that, championing this measure or that, but in the main these matters are all arranged behind the scenes and over the poker table. In England, on the contrary, the man who has weathered the storm of fierce political debate is the man to whom Parliament and people look for leadership in government, and whereas the man who makes a brilliant speech in Congress is almost sure to alarm the delicate sensibilities of the National Committee Chairman, the man who makes a brilliant speech in the House of Commons, is more often than not marked for the Ministry.

But, it is suggested, why should not our college forums model themselves on the plan of our own Congress? The possibilities of such a procedure are at least interesting. Was it not a member of the United States Senate, who, after speaking for seventeen hours, complained that his feet hurt? You see the qualifications necessary for that sort of a future, and the sort of men that we would have to entice into these societies. Can you imagine the state of Senator Heflin's mind when he was still an undergraduate? Moreover, think of a debating society modeled on the lines

of a body no one portion of which, however large, can do anything so long as any other one portion of it, however small, objects. We might model it after a political convention, but in that event we might just as well turn matters over to the cheer leaders and the alumni.

7. Finally, let us consider the Commonwealth Club of San Francisco. This is a body with a huge membership among business, professional, and technical men, as well as artists, writers, schoolmen, members of labor unions, clergymen, etc. It has a permanent executive staff occupying permanent club quarters. The function of the club is impartially to investigate questions of large public concern to community, state, and nation, to consolidate the findings through discussion and debate, to test them through analysis and criticism, to publish bulletins, to advise voters and legislators how to vote on important measures, to hold weekly luncheons at which noted men speak with a broadcast over KPO, and to function as a forum generally. Now, the important feature of this body, for our purposes, is that it is subdivided into what are known as "sections" each section devoted to a particular field. There is the section on International Relations; the section on Administration of Justice; the section on Taxation and Public Finance; the section on Municipal Government; the section on Industrial Relations; the section on Irrigation; the section on Agriculture; the section on Forestry and Wild Life; the section on Architecture; the section on Music; the section on the Drama; the section on Public Health; the section on National Defense; the section on Eugenics; the section on Aviation; and so on down the line. A member may belong to as many of these sections as he likes. Each has a staff, and each has meetings for the consideration of problems met with in its research, and here you have reports of the section chairman, minority reports, and a most pointed discussion by the attending membership. After a question has been thoroughly investigated, and the resulting report thoroughly threshed out in open meeting and if necessary amended, on motion seconded and carried, this report may be published in pamphlet form. Needless to say this Club is a powerful factor in the formation of public opinion in northern California.

Now, in the university we have, at present, as I have indicated before, specialized groups interested in the study of particular

fields. Is it stretching the imagination too greatly to envisage these clubs allied into what would be in its most literal connotation an all-University Union? Such a body would be more than a mere discussion forum, it would be a research body as well. It would answer the modern criticism of the discussion forum that it is not scientific—for it would not go forward with any discussion until it could do so on all the available facts. It is a lovely dream, until I think of the Stanford campus as it actually is and try to envisage the Engineering lion sitting down to the feast with the Classical Literature lamb. And yet, within the scope of a single Division or School, it might find its start. Certainly, within the School of Social Sciences it might have some chance for success.

I have concerned myself in this paper primarily with the problem of the decline of the literary and debating society in universities and colleges. In doing so I have noted that debating itself, has become more the privilege of a talented few, and that the organization of the activity has become less and less a matter of voluntary student initiative.

And the question I raise in closing is this: has the time comes for a swing back toward some form of the old-time debating forum?

AUDIENCE CONSCIOUSNESS

CLARENCE E. LYON
University of South Dakota

WE appear to be living in a time of varied and increasing "consciousnesses." The morning paper declares, in rather insistent type, that the "American people must become tax-conscious"; a news weekly pictures a man meditating in the open spaces trying to become "God-conscious"; the forces behind aerial transportation are promoting "air-consciousness." In our daily routine we are confronted with a multiplicity of such focusing appeals. Meanwhile the humble teacher of public speaking pauses, reflects, considers, and then takes a new hold on the idea that one of his chief concerns has always been the promotion of audience consciousness.

The subject of audience consciousness presents so many aspects that one's first task is to attempt to place a fence around a partic-

ular section of it. For present purposes I shall limit the subject to a brief treatment of the *speaker's consciousness* of his audience. I am thinking of audience consciousness on the part of the speaker as the possession of a proper degree and kind of audience awareness. This state of adequate awareness is a factor that must be actively present during the preparation of the material of the speech and during the delivery of the speech. Obvious as this should be, it is one of those principles "more honored in the breach than in the observance." How seemingly difficult it is for speakers, young and old, to realize fully that they speak primarily because an audience is present, and that without hearers the reasons for speaking in public cease to exist!

Quintilian once declared, "It is the part of an acute pleader to observe, above all, by what remarks the judge is most impressed and to what he listens with disapprobation; a circumstance which may often be discovered by his looks or sometimes from some word or gesture. He ought then to insist upon whatever promotes his object and to withdraw adroitly from whatever is prejudicial to him....It is the part of judgment to adapt your speech to places and circumstances and characters."[1] In other words Quintilian was saying, observe, above all, the reactions and responses of your audience. Overstreet puts it this way, "The first simple rule of all good speaking, in any situation whatever is: think of your audience. In observing the speech habits of people you will note that a great many speakers are apparently not thinking of their audience at all. They are apparently speaking to relieve themselves. Such speakers might be called unloaders. Their primary object is to get rid of something. Their interest is not in their audience, but in themselves—scholarly unloaders, scientific unloaders, family-troubles unloaders, business-grouch unloaders."[2]

Observations made and conclusions drawn in my own class room have long convinced me that one of our first responsibilities as teachers of public speaking is to help our students to develop more fully a real sense of audience awareness. If we are to do creative work and actually produce better speakers we can not side-step this issue. It presents both a responsibility and an opportunity.

[1] Quintilian: *Institutes of Oratory;* Book 6, Chapter 4, pp. 461, 464. Translation by J. S. Watson. George Bell and Sons, London.

[2] Overstreet, H. A: *Influencing Human Behavior;* pp. 72, 73.

In training students in the ways of effective speaking the first aspects of audience consciousness, to be sure, are likely to be found in the direction of too much consciousness of the wrong sort. In these early stages of learning how to speak along with the pangs of too much *self* consciousness goes the twin feeling of a spectre-like audience, out there somewhere in space, ready to devour, or strike down, or in some manner obliterate the would-be speaker. At this stage it would be well-nigh impossible to convince the speaker that he is the leader of the thought of the group, or that he has any business at all with the group, or that speaking is a thing to be enjoyed by both audience and speaker. So we have to expect all of the attendant fears, timidities, embarrassments, repressions, complexes, and possible discoveries that go with a naturally difficult "learning how" process. In these early stages whatever audience consciousness *is* present inside the speaker seems devastating and destructive. Yet while a speaker is wrestling with himself and learning to wrestle with a subject he is at least paving the way for wrestling with audiences and the possible development of a helpful and constructive kind of audience awareness.

With sufficient effort practically all normal students, regardless of differences in individual abilities and temperaments, can largely overcome the initial difficulties involved in self control and subject control. But this is not so true of AUDIENCE control. There is the rub. That is why the most vital, as well as the most stubborn problems in speech-making center about audience-speaker relationships.

Most of us are agreed that modern public speaking is more than self expression and personality enlargement,—important as that is, in its place. A public speech must serve some useful purpose and that purpose is found in its influence and power in the minds, lives, and actions of other people.

I recall that some years ago a special committee was selected in the NATIONAL ASSOCIATION for the purpose of drawing up a more or less standardized course for Speech I. There was "much argument about it, and about" and out of the smoke came a statement of purposes. This begining course was intended to do many things for the student and to do them for him, in the words of the report, "while standing before an audience."

Let no one think that it is trite to say that audience control

is the master key to successful speaking. From the beginning we have preached this gospel. Its truth is fundamental. And yet speakers, in and out of class rooms, continue to ignore audiences, or partially disregard their presence, or to work with them only half-heartedly. From the view point of constructive training the logical remedy would seem to be to follow the admonition of the "good book," "Remember my commandments to *do* them".

The question arises then, as teachers of public speaking do we measure up to the mark in training students actually to reach and influence audiences? It is comparatively easy to teach theory; it is much more difficult to get *performance*,—especially performance of a high quality. I have known instructors to become so enthusiastic over a theory that no energy was left for getting anything done about it. Others have been known to find contentment in placidly teaching theories and principles about how to speak. No doubt that is the easy way, but it is not the effective way. It is too much like tree-sitting. What percentage of our students can properly adjust themselves to audience situations and be successful in the matter of desired audience responses? In his play "The Perfect Alibi," A. A. Milne describes one of his characters as "one of those charming and apparently not very intelligent young men whom the Universities empty into the world so hopefully and so regularly." I wonder if we are contributing our share? Are we developing live, alert, smart, stimulating, audience-minded speakers,—able to use what they know—or are we turning out aimless, spineless, indifferent mollycoddles to bore other audiences in other days, and thereby help to throw public speaking into disrepute? Last October in arranging an Alumni dinner a committee sought to attract the crowd by a printed folder announcing in bold type, "There will be no speeches." And the crowd came.

Our class rooms are filled with the signs of a lack of audience awareness. Tom, Dick, and Mary study diligently the principles of attention, the fundamental interests, the impelling motives, the methods of suggestion, relating the unknown to the known, imagination, purposes, persuasion, and all the rest,—then make speeches and fail to use the principles studied, or use them but feebly, under audience conditions. Among the many signs of audience *un*awareness, we have speaking that is purely subjective, speaking that is half communicative, the vacant eye, perhaps the vacant mind,

material not suited to audience, material not adapted to audience, no sense of the passing of time, inability to cope with distractions, inability to capture attention, constantly faltering concentration, rising or sustained inflections for almost everything, and repeated failures to accomplish the avowed purpose of a speech.

Here, then, in the matter of training speakers in audience-mindedness is a real challenge to the teacher of public speaking today. Along with all of the very fine educational results that we are getting from study and research and scientific investigation are we keeping up in getting practical results in putting better speakers before audiences? What more can we do in our teaching to strengthen the performance end, to eliminate the "unloader," to make a public speech a thing not to be dreaded or endured by an audience, but interesting, moving, stimulating?

In what ways can we best help our students with this speaker-audience problem? Assuming that the material of the speech is adequate in factors of interestingness and impelling human motives I have found four things especially helpful. First, concentration upon that part of *Attention* which deals with *focal points.* Thus far I have used the term consciousness only in the general sense of awareness. It is evident that as students grow in ability it becomes necessary to make certain analytical studies in psychology,—being careful not to become too involved in mere psychological terms or lost in the mazes of anatomy. In a psychological study of the Conscious, the Subconscious, the Unconscious, the most helpful thing, I believe, for the speaker is a working understanding of the principle of the focal point of attention and the fringe of consciousness. Dr. Morton Prince, puts it this way: "Meaning may be in the focus of attention or it may be in the fringe or background according to the point of interest. Meaning, when it is not in the focus of attention often becomes very elusive. It is probably because of this elusiveness, as of something that seems to evade analysis that it was so long overlooked as an object of psychological study. When speaking of the content of consciousness we have in mind those ideas, or elements of thought, which are in the focus of attention, and therefore that of which we are more or less vividly aware."[3]

[3] Prince, Morton: *The Unconscious;* Lecture XI. Meaning, and the Fringe of Consciousness, p. 339.

In brief, then, the speaker's problem in this connection is to bring his elements of thought, while speaking, as vividly and completely as possible into the spot-light of the focal point of attention, for the sake of his hearers. The realization that ideas must be brought into proper focus for the benefit of the audience throws actual audience consciousness, as such, into the fringe of consciousness, or into the unconscious. This would seem to be the ideal situation in speaking. With this sort of audience relationship speaker and audience become a unit, become as one, in following focal points of attention as the speech progresses, and with a mutual concentration upon the centers of thought in the content of the speech.

In her paper on LINCOLN—THE SPEAKER,[4] Mildred Freburg Berry has pointed out that Mr. Lincoln was often inclined to be confused by the presence of an audience and that he overcame this feeling only when he became submerged in his subject. And what caused him to become submerged? First of all, no doubt, interest in his subject; but following this and more important, a realization that he must connect subject and audience. In an empty room, no matter how great his own interest in the subject, Mr. Lincoln could never have become submerged in it, could never have created an ideal speaker-audience situation.

The urgency of getting others to follow him in his thinking caused Mr. Lincoln to lose himself (in the right sense) in the speech situation; caused him to "forget" his audience as a mere presence. His great desire to make others see or accept his point of view enabled him, when at his best, to realize the sort of double consciousness that seems so desirable in speaking—the main stream of consciousness carrying the content of the speech and all other elements taken care of in the subconscious. True audience consciousness comes not from thinking merely of the audience (as some suppose) but from a consciousness on the speaker's part that he must treat his subject in such a manner as to lead his audience into intellectual and emotional responses, through centers of attention, *amalgamating speaker, subject,* and *audience.*

To be sure, attention may be so uncontrolled as frequently to rest at the wrong focal point. Seashore relates the incident of the scholar who held an egg in his hand while he boiled his watch. Sea-

[4] *The Quarterly Journal of Speech.* February, 1931.

shore exonerates him on the ground that his mind was probably on something far more important than the egg, but a public audience would be less tolerant.

A second helpful suggestion in the development of audience awareness may be found in a working knowledge of *"Circular Responses."* A speaker gradually learns that when he starts some activity in the minds of his hearers, reactions and responses begin to come quickly. To quote Overstreet, "The circular response also implies that something is to be set going in the mind of the speaker as a result of what is going on in the minds of the audience. . .. It is fundamental to all effective mental intercourse."[5] It is clear that this process can not work in just one direction,—from speaker to audience. It cannot work like a grain carrier delivering at one end only. As something is carried back to the speaker from his audience he in turn must respond in this give-and-take procedure; and the responsibility for regulating and controlling circular responses must rest with the speaker. Beecher, at Liverpool, completed the first circular response when he struck the note of fair play; up to that moment all responses from his audience had been antagonistic in nature and there had been no completed circuit.

In the matter of topics for speeches in beginning courses I have found that by far the best responses have come when students are speaking on personal experience topics. Not only are the responses better but there is less undesirable fringe around the focal points of attention. I am strongly in favor of building more of our speaking programs around the life experiences of students, and then proceeding to moral, social, economic, or general public interest questions upon which they may have convictions.

One of the quickest ways of testing circular responses is through the use of humor. A temperate, discreet and fitting use of humor may serve as an ice breaker. And, of course, the audience response to humor carries with it more of outward show, thereby giving the speaker definite and immediate encouragement. Quintilian must have been right when he admitted humor as a legitimate element of Rhetoric. On the other hand, we weaken the response and also cheapen humor by over-using it for attempted audience contacts. In some of our present-day debating, for instance, there is often an unfortunate tendency toward too much pointless

[5] Overstreet, H. A.: *Ibid;* p. 77.

humor. Wise-cracking should not be substituted for evidence and reasoning. Moreover, such alleged humor may be unduly premeditated and have no connection whatever with a particular audience situation.

In one of our recent debates with a large western university one speaker spent five minutes of his allotted twelve in telling "funny stories" that had no particular relevancy either to the subject or to the occasion. His colleague referred to him as their "star debater." If debaters want to use humor, let it be genuine, let it fit, let it be used sparingly, and let it be checked on the basis of probable response. If the modern debater would take time to read Quintilian's treatment of humor,[6] he would find some excellent and helpful advice.

Nor is the over-tendency of campus speakers to inject the somewhat artificial "now friends," "now folks," "my dear friends," enough to insure an adequate response from an audience. It is too much on the surface. It is too much like tossing lumps of sugar to a trained seal to induce him to balance a ball on his nose.

In his earlier years of public life William Jennings Bryan was a master of the art of securing responses. Whether it was a humorous political incident with the laugh on himself, or a vivid bit of narration or description, or a persuasive appeal, he always made audiences feel that they were *participating* in the process; that in turn accounted for much of his ease and sureness and dynamic power on the platform. In the municipal auditorium in Denver I heard him address an audience of ten thousand people. He seemed to reach all of them and he held their interest and attention for an hour and a half. It is true that Mr. Bryan was not so successful in argumentative speaking, but that must be attributed to other causes. In his later years he lost some of his effectiveness in all types of speaking, largely because he became somewhat careless in the matter of audience responses. This was true of the content of his speeches and also of his platform habits.

In his treatment of the psychology of gaining acceptance Brigance[7] gives an excellent analysis of audiences. All students should

[6] Quintilian: *Institutes of Oratory;* Book VI, Chapter 3. Humor, Jocularity, Jests, Laughter.

[7] Brigance, Wm. N.: *The Spoken Word;* Chapter 5. F. S. Crofts & Co., New York, 1927.

be required to study the entire chapter. On page 130 will be found this pithy statement concerning persuasion: "A speaker who assumes the supreme task of making people think with him, agree with him, and go forth to act upon his words, inevitably lays out for himself a difficult goal. To attempt this task without even a pretense at learning how human behavior is influenced is a fool's game."

If an instructor can stimulate students so that they become actively interested in the problems of centers of Attention and Responses he has laid the foundation for a third important step, namely the use of the *personal questionnaire* method. An open-minded and exploratory instructor will make some important discoveries through the use of questionnaires which will reveal the students' intellectual and emotional experiences in the process of actual speaking. (In fact it might be better for the profession if we would give more questionnaires to our students and not send so many to other teachers.)

It cannot be emphasized too often that speech training must begin and end with the individual—and not with books or theories or fixed methods. One of the weaknesses in teaching speaking is apt to be the failure to realize that the fundamental principles, facts, or theories, gathered from books, lectures, treatises, reports, reading, and research must be personalized,—must be properly related to experience. We must teach the individual. To do this we must know his needs. We must find ways of getting personality reactions from our students. We must help them to help themselves. Until the speaker begins to discover pretty definitely what is going on, or failing to go on, in his own being while he speaks, he can not expect much in the way of audience control.

With this in mind I have been using in my classes a series of experimental, personal questionnaires. The specific questions included are designed to reveal the student's experience, as nearly as he can describe it or explain it, with audience consciousness during preparation and delivery. The tests have not as yet covered enough ground to justify tabulation but the results are proving to be interesting, and to some extent illuminating in revealing just what goes on in the minds of student-speakers while facing audiences. I hope to be able to offer a constructive report on findings at a later date.

A fourth thing that I have singled out as indispensable in working out the speaker-audience problem is the WILL. Again, we must find ways to make adequate connections with the sources and forces of will in the life of the student. True, there is much variance in opinion as to what the will actually is and how it works. The treatment of will by James and Angell will give both instructor and student a reasonably definite approach. James says, in substance, that the will designates our entire capacity for active life. In Angell we find the following: "In the will we have the culmination of all activities of control. The term will covers the whole range of mental life, viewed from the standpoint of its activity and control over movement. THE WHOLE MIND ACTIVE, THIS IS THE WILL."[8]

Now it goes without saying that an instructor cannot install a will as though it were a mere attachment. The will to speak must come from the life processes of the individual concerned. Primarily, he is the one who must discover what it means to have "the whole mind active" as a speaker. Nevertheless, a capable and understanding teacher can help to strengthen will power in others just as he can help to enlarge personality. As I conceive it the business of a teacher of public speaking is not merely to hand out information in a take it or leave it manner. He must now and then be fired with powers of conviction and persuasion,—without boiling over. He must stimulate and he must oft-times inspire.

Appeals to the sense of accomplishment, to pride, to the imagination, to personal ideals, to a resistance of possible defeat,—all may be helpful. Any method that will produce a better functioning of the will ought to be a good method. For in the last analysis it may be this one factor of vitalized and energized Will that will connect a speaker with his audience and thus spell the difference between failure and success on the platform.

In selecting these particular factors as ways of stimulating audience consciousness I have not been unmindful of the many other important elements of audience psychology that must necessarily enter into the process. Focal points of attention, circular responses, personal discoveries, and the will have not been selected arbitrarily. They have been thought of as necessary centers around which to

[8] Angell, J. R.: *Psychology;* Chap. XXII, Character and the Will, p. 379.

build. Nor am I unmindful of the fact that individuals vary greatly in the amount of audience sense bestowed upon them by nature. But topping all this is the need for training, practice, and experience which with enough effort, patience, sustained interest, and drive on the part of the student of speaking will insure an increasing skill.

In order to make thorough and adequate tests of principles, in order that speaking ability may keep pace with knowledge about speaking, I am convinced that in our courses in public speaking we must give more time to actual speaking. I am not unaware of the fact that much has been done, and is being done; my point is that we must do more and do it more thoroughly and more understandingly. If we are going to train men and women to be audience-minded we must give them more audiences to work with while in training. Student speakers need sparring partners. Granted that the average class audience, even under the best conditions, is not quite the same as other audiences—we dare not use this as an alibi. With enough imagination and enough drive student speakers can make student audiences the real thing.

I believe we can strengthen and vitalize speech training by an enlargement of the whole speaking program—providing more opportunities for audience contacts in class speaking, community speaking, special group speaking. Laboratories in audience relationships are important and necessary. It would be entirely practical in most schools to hold departmental meetings at regular intervals for all of the students in a department, thus giving larger and more frequent audiences for purposes of audience-speaker experimentation,—the keynote of such laboratory work being the development of increased audience awareness.

THE ELIMINATION OF GREEK DIALECT IN ENGLISH

DONALD HAYWORTH
University of Akron

THE suggestions and material to be presented in this report are taken from a series of studies of foreign dialects being made at the University of Akron in connection with classes in the elimination of foreign dialect conducted by Miss Maxine Dye.

Not all of these observations have been sufficiently tested to

justify complete faith in them. In the main, however, there is no question but that they will be found helpful and sufficiently accurate for classroom work.

I. METHODOLOGY

Our experience seems to show that groups of three to five are the best size with which to work It is, of course, preferable to have only one nationality in a group. And the best results may be obtained if the members of the class have about the same facility in speaking English and are of about the same intellectual and social levels. The length of the class period may be from an hour to an hour and a half, meeting once or twice a week.

Persons with much the same linguistic history may have marked differences in problems of foreign dialect, so the deficiencies of each student should be studied separately. The instructor may well keep a separate sheet for the record of each student's development. At the first meeting the instructor should make an analysis of the student's problems and begin the sheet by a summary of them. As the course continues the suggestions that are made from time to time may be put on the sheet, so that, to use a figure of speech, it will serve as a means of reckoning the student's longitude and latitude It will be valuable as a log of his development. The instructor may take up the most important things first and proceed methodically.

While each student must be dealt with separately, yet there is a distinct advantage in having at least three in the class. They are able to hear one another's speech and distinguish the difficulties. Once the difficulties are distinguished the problem is almost if not entirely solved. A group, too, provides a certain social stimulation that is very wholesome.

It is well to attack one problem at a time and be sure some progress is made before proceeding to a new problem. This implies that the instructor will permit many mistakes to go uncorrected. If, for example, the matter of trilling the [r] has not been thoroughly explained in class the instructor should not draw attention to mistakes of such nature. But after that mistake has been formally explained it should never be permitted to pass uncorrected.

The average student is so eager to make progress that he will try to go faster than he should. In order to force him to concen-

trate on only one difficulty at a time it has been considered wise to pass out mimeographed sheets only when ready to take up a new problem. In case the instructor feels he should not point out any new problem because the students have not shown sufficient mastery of the material already given them it is well to hand out *new* material on an *old* problem. This gives the students a feeling of progress. Such material may be no more than copies of literature or bits of conversation for practice.

It is difficult to determine how much phonetics should be mastered by the student. If he can acquire the correct sounds by imitation it is probably preferable to use that method. If this fails, however, a complete phonetic explanation by charts, models, or blackboard may acomplish the purpose. The explanation should always be accompanied by the phonetic symbol representing the sound.

It is well to work on individual sounds, phrases, and sentences, but drill with separate words should be avoided. The instructor should always deal with the largest possible unit. That is to say, if a student makes a mistake, instead of repeating the sound, repeat the whole sentence, or, at any rate, the whole phrase.

It will be found beneficial to have a short talk every meeting by each student, preferably on some aspect of his daily work. The advantages are, first, that the student receives correction on the speech he is more likely to use in his daily contacts; second, that it gives opportunity to work on extended conversation, instead of on minutiae; third, it gives the instructor a close check on how much the student is actually carrying his class work over into his conversation.

In one way or another, and especially by frequent repetition, a great deal of emphasis should be given:

1. *Ear Training.* The students should realize that if the ear can be trained to distinguish unfailingly the correct sound it is probable that the musculature of speech will develop the desired habits of sound production. For this reason during the class hour the student should be constantly alert in observing the speech of his fellow students. Outside of class he should listen critically to Americans speaking and analyze their speech. In mingling with those of his own nationality he should note their short-comings.
2. *Drill at Home.* No one can expect to eradicate the influ-

ences of having first learned another language unless he is willing to give it a great deal of effort, involving daily drill outside of class. In order to succeed in this work the student *must make it a hobby* and give it that generous attention and eager interest we are willing to give all our hobbies.

The last thing to be pointed out in this section is that the teacher should bs sympathetic, patient, and courteous, but dynamic. It will always be found that the students are very high type of individuals They are ambitious, and keen intellectually. Unless the instructor rises to meet them on their own level—unless he is dynamic—the best work cannot be accomplished.

II. A SURVEY OF THE CHIEF DIFFICULTIES IN CHANGING FROM THE LANGUAGE HABITS OF GREEK TO THOSE OF ENGLISH

There are few difficulties as far as consonants are concerned. Modern Greek has all the consonantal sounds of English with the exceptions of [h], [w], and [hw]. In most cases these give little difficulty. But although modern Greek has the [ð], strange to say, all the Greeks with whom we worked have frequently substituted [d] for [ð]. The elimination of this takes considerable effort. Another consonant deserving attention is the [r] which is trilled slightly in Greek.

The greatest difficulties are found in mastering English vowels. Modern Greek has but five vowel sounds: [iɾ, eɾ, a, oɾ, uɾ]. In taking up English, the Greek-speaking person makes his five vowels do the work of thirteen vowels and diphthongs as follows:

i, ɪ → iɾ	u, ʊ → uɾ	e, eɪ, ɛ, æ → eɾ	a, ʌ, æ → a	o, oU, ɔ → oɾ

Thus [i] and [ɪ] are put in one phoneme by those who first learned Greek as a native language. The "schwa" vowel [ə] is used, but not systematically. Since it does not appear in Greek and since it has no symbol in English printing the Greek-speaking person acquires it by accident, or, at least, without realizing he is using it. The mid-Western r is avoided in one way or another—some may slyly remark that it is either by the Grace of God or by the student's innate realization of cultural values.

In dealing with Greeks, as with all cases of foreign dialect, many spelling-pronunciations inevitably force themselves upon us.

As a matter of fact, spelling-pronunciations are not only characteristic of persons trying to learn English from another language, but they are also characteristic of native Americans, as shown by the tendency to put a [t] in "often." The matter of spelling-pronunciations, however, creeps into the elimination of Greek dialect to a noticeable degree in failure to vocalize the [s] sound into [z] after vocalized consonants, as in the word "ribs."

It is very important to teach the prevalence of the "schwa" vowel in English. This applies, of course, to all work in foreign dialect.

Likewise, there is a general tendency to avoid contractions. For example, in saying the first two words of "Do you want that?" they will tend to say [du ju] instead of [dju]. In saying, "That would do," they might say each word distinctly instead of saying, [ðæt əd du]. In attempting to say "four or five," they might say [fɔr ɔr faiv] instead of [fɔr r faiv]. So also, "this and that" would not usually be pronounced, [ðis n ðæt].

Some effort must be spent in showing the class how to explode faucally the [n] sound in such words as "Canton," "wooden," and button."

These are most of the specific difficulties involved in teaching Greeks to speak English. The instructor may decide in which order he will prefer to take them up after hearing his students go through some tests at the first meeting. He will be safe, however, in taking up first the problem of differentiating between [i] and [ɪ].

III. EXAMPLES OF EXERCISES AS HANDED TO GREEK-ENGLISH FOREIGN DIALECT CLASSES AT THE UNIVERSITY OF AKRON

1. The first sheet following this is titled "Splitting the [i-ɪ] Phoneme." And the next one deals with [u-ʊ]. These are handed out when the instructor sees fit. Diagrams and a complete phonetic explanation are given immediately. The students practice till they see the distinction. They use this as a drill during the week. Work on this particular difficulty is continued till it is obvious that the student has mastered the problem.

2. The [r] drills are used in much the same manner as the vowel drills.

3. There are available several mimeographed sheets of common phrases which are handed out from time to time and used in practicing individual problems.

4. A number of similar conversations are used in the same way as the sheets of common phrases.

SPLITTING THE i-I PHONEME

It is particularly difficult for those who have learned Greek as a native tongue to distinguish between i and I. The words in the first column are characterized by I; those in the second column by i. The I sound is made with tongue slightly lower, slightly more forward, and, of most importance, it is considerably relaxed from the position used in uttering i.

1	2	3	4	5	6
dill	deal	did	deed	bicker	beaker
dim	deem	dip	deep	bid	bead
fill	feel	fill	feel	bit	beet, beat
Glynn	glean	flit	fleet	dipper	deeper
grid	greed	gin	Jean	flit	fleet
grit	greet	grin	green	hid	heed
hip	heap	grist	greased	ill	eel
lid	lead	hill	heel	in	e'en
list	leased	hit	heat	is	ease
live	leave	lick	leak	it	eat
mit	meet, meat	lin	lean	kipper	keeper
rid	read, reed	mill	meal	knit	neat
rill	reel	Min	mean, mien	lip	leap
sick	seek	pick	peek	litter	liter
sin	seen	pill	peel	nil	kneel
sip	seep	pitch	peach	rip	reap
sit	seat	rich	reach	scrim	scream
slit	sleet	rick	reek	sicker	seeker
tick	teak (wood)	rim	ream	slip	sleep
till	teal	sill	seal	still	steal
tin	teen	slick	sleek	trickle	treacle

UNUSUAL SPELLINGS WITH THE I SOUND

mere	rear	tear	dear	adage	beer
begin	repeat	desert	reward	detain	peer
bedeck	pyramid	mystery		myriad	necessity
	liquor				

Of the hundred most commonly used words in English, the following have the I sound.

in	this	if	little	its	is
it	his	him	with	into	will

The following paragraph contains many ɪ sounds:

His mittens will not hinder him from hitting the mandolin strings. If he grips the pick between his thumb and finger, he will discover it can be held in place during the picking of the note. It is important to hold this in mind, however, that with the using of the pick it is important to damp the string skillfully with the left hand.

SPLITTING THE u-ʊ PHONEME

Anyone who has learned Greek as a native tongue has a hard time making a difference between u and ʊ. The words in the first column are pronounced with u; those in the second column with ʊ. For the first column, the lips are protruded and the tongue is high in the back and tense. For the second column, the whole musculature of the mouth is relatively relaxed.

u	ʊ
cooed	could
fool	full
Luke	look
pool	pull
stewed	stood
suit	soot
wooed	wood

Of the thousand words most widely used in English, the following use the

ʊ sound	u sound		
should	afternoon	July	school
push	annual	June	suit
puss	avenue	knew	too
foot	beautiful	lose	true
good	blue	move	truly
look	do	new	Tuesday
took	due	newspaper	two
stood	duty	noon	usual
woman	February	prove	whom
would	forenoon	refuse	whose
could	issue	room	you

Luke Gilhooley stood a good chance of losing his life during the

forenoon of February third when he refused to move before the flames that issued from the room of the school. He knew well the poor woman who had endured the scorching heat to save her son whom she saw through the smoke. He did not look back, but covered with soot, he crawled within and pulled her body through the room. Meanwhile the flame spurted from his arm and finally his hand dropped off. The poor woman had to be left to burn, but, as a beautiful tribute the town bought Luke Gilhooley a new suit and another wooden arm.

EXERCISES FOR r

p These prunes have a sharp taste.
b The brackets are in the arbor.
t The tractor pulled a little cart.
d The garden is dry.
k She was crying in the dark.
g He argued with a gray-haired man.
m His arm was on the emery wheel.
n Corn fields made up the scenery.
l The dog snarled in the distillery.
f He was a fretful little dwarf.
v Starving men were hovering around.
θ The hearth gave me a thrill.
s It looks like a farce.
ð They go farther when feathering.
z Misery puts up no bars.
ʃ Marsh birds have a shrill call.
j Are you?

Richard was really arrested. Care-free, adventure—loving Richard, alone in a strange country, to be thrown into prison! He had wanted to see Berlin from the air, and took a suburban train to the airport. Stepping off the railroad car he saw the hangars and started along the platform. The train started—going in the same direction Richard was walking. American-like he swung himself onto a car to get a "lift" up on the platform. He didn't see the tremendous consternation that spread over the face of a nearby police officer. He did not even hear that worthy's shouts of warning. Rather, Richard was engrossed in three or four girls who were willing to flirt with him. Before he knew it he was carried through the gates past the platform where he couldn't jump off.

The officer was pursuing the train. Just then the engineer looked toward the rear of the train, saw him and stopped the train. The police officer caught up, and Richard was really arrested.

COMMON PHRASES IN ENGLISH

1. Where are you going?
2. I don't know.
3. Come in.
4. Is that so?
5. Where do you live?
6. Close the door.
7. I'll be glad to go.
8. Where's the suit department?
9. What are you doing?
10. Dinner's served.
11. What of it?
12. What a lovely day!
13. That's very good of you.
14. How do you do?
15. Do you have a car?
16. I'm so hungry.
17. I'll be glad to come.
18. Why's that?
19. Won't you come?
20. I don't like that.
21. Did he want to do it?
22. Please sit down.
23. Do you think so?
24. Where's the paper?
25. What book is that?
26. Where's Main Street?
27. How far's the next town?
28. How much does it cost?
29. When will it happen?
30. Sure he's right.
31. You are not going with us?
32. What time is it?
33. We'd be glad to have you.
34. Why, that can't be right.
35. My, but I'm tired.
36. It's about time to go to bed.
37. He's very good looking.
38. I'll get the tickets.
39. Will you please give me the check?
40. Do you have your lesson tonight?
41. Where do you go to school?
42. The entrance is on the corner.
43. I wish I had a lot of money.
44. It's time to get up.
45. Do you want to go for a ride?
46. Let's go to the movie.
47. What do you think about that?
48. Pass the bread, please.
49. Where do you take a street car?
50. I wonder if it's going to rain.
51. It looks strange to me.
52. Every one can't do it.

53. He may be able to do it.
54. That's putting it mildly.
55. It's within walking distance.
56. He thought it was a wild scheme.
57. It shows poor judgment.
58. We can't all be wrong.
59. Go a little more slowly there.
60. Be careful of that glass.

IN THE DOCTOR'S OFFICE

1. Good morning, doctor; may I see you right away?
2. Yes, indeed; step into the other office.
1. I'm sorry I couldn't come during your office hours.
2. Oh, that's all right. Won't you take a chair?
1. Thank you. Your assistant isn't here?
2. No, she's due any time, though. What seems to be your trouble?
1. I guess I have stomach trouble.
2. Is it a constant pain or is it worse at times?
1. Well, I never do feel like I should. But sometimes it's worse.
2. Is there any history of cancer in your family?
1. None that I know of.
2. Did you ever notice more pain after eating certain things?
1. I have an idea that it's worse at night.
2. Do you eat much for breakfast?
1. Not very much—toast, oatmeal, and ham usually.
2. Is your noon meal very heavy?
1. I always go into a "one-armed" restaurant at noon. No, I don't eat much.
2. What do you usually eat at night?
1. Potatoes, meat, a piece of pie, coffee—
2. Don't you eat bread?
1. Oh, yes, surely we have bread.
2. About how many slices of bread do you eat for the evening meal?
1. I expect I eat about a slice of bread.
2. Do you eat vegetables—corn, peas, tomatoes, and things like that?
1. Hardly ever. I don't care for vegetables very much.
2. Well, I tell you what I am going to do. I want you to tell your wife to cook just about half as much meat for you as she has been and give you two vegetables for every evening meal.
1. Well, I suppose she can do that.

2. And then I want you to take strenuous exercise in a gymnasium three times a week—real exercise that will make the sweat pour off your skin.
1. Aren't you going to give me any medicine?
2. No, I'm going to make you cure yourself.
1. You're a strange doctor. But I'll try it.
2. And come back in a week. Good-bye.
1. All right. Thank you. Good-bye.

THE OXFORD VERSE SPEAKING CONTEST

MARY EVANS SAUNDERS
Union University and Lambuth College
Jackson, Tennessee

ONE of the main objectives of my visit to Europe this past summer was attendance upon the Oxford Verse Speaking Contest and Festival. I was most fortunate in securing accommodations at the typical old English inn where the speakers were registered, and I was able to see something of English customs and manners as well as to come in close touch with the speakers on the program.

The first day was devoted to the Verse Speaking Contest and was held in the little city of Oxford, and the Verse Festival, which followed for two days after, was at "Hill Crest," the picturesque home of the Poet Laureate and Mrs. Masefield, in the suburban Boars Hill section, about "forty-five minutes" as the English would say, beyond the tapering spires of Oxford. Mr. and Mrs. Masefield have had erected and equipped on their estate, within a stone's throw of their residence, a conveniently sized audience hall, with elevated stage, curtains and comfortable seats, for the visitors. This the people are pleased to call the "Music Room." In America possibly it might be referred to as a "Little Theatre." The surrounding gardens with flowers, hedges, and lovely trees, made an artistic setting; and through its walks, the visitors were privileged to stroll during intermissions.

The personnel of those attending and participating in the Verse Festival was of England's best. Poets, professional actors and actresses were there, lovers of poetry and drama, teachers of

Speech and Dramatic Art and their pupils and followers, the cultured English ladies and gentlemen.

It was clearly evident that Mr. and Mrs. Masefield had worked untiringly for the success of the occasion, and the smoothness with which the whole affair was executed was the result not alone of months of effort preceding the 1930 Contest and Festival, but of seven years' previous preparation.

Those who spoke in the Verse Festival the last two days had been winners or had received honorable mention in Verse Contests of previous years, thus making the talent and speaking of a higher type. The 1930 Festival was promoted with business-like efficiency. Mr. Masefield personally directed the rehearsals preceding the performances with a fixed schedule of hours for each set of speakers. I was told by one of the speakers that all appearing on the program paid a few shillings in the way of Registration fee. There were no charges for admission and booklet programs or Time Tables, so-called, were given out at the door.

"The Verse Speaking Contests and Festivals which are held in Oxford each year in July were begun seven years ago," states the Poet Laureate in a published article. "One of the causes which led to this beginning was the attendance of Mrs. Masefield and myself upon the Edinburgh Musical Festival when, hearing the speech of some of the verse speaking classes, we longed to hear similar speech in Oxford. When the invitation was extended for the first contest, more than five hundred contestants entered. Some of the best speakers were from Edinburgh and Glasgow, and even better than these were some English women. When we began to hold these contests we knew that the public speaking of verse was at a very low ebb and few people considered listening to poetry as a main pleasure in life.

"It may be of interest to know how the contests are arranged. The competitors speak the prescribed selections from a platform. The judges select a few of the best from each class to compete in the final test of that class. The best two from the finals are allowed to compete in the Championship.

"We have had competitors from China, Australia, India and France and from the United States." For the 1930 Festival a splendid young English woman and her frail mother came across the seas from South Africa to attend.

In the 1928 Festival, short dramas were written for the occasion by Lawrence Binyon and Gordon Bottomley, with translations from the Greek by Mr. Masefield.

Before leaving Oxford I was told by one of the Festival Speakers that this fall Mr. Masefield was planning to hold a Gordon Bottomley Poetry Festival at "Hill Crest" and that Mr. Bottomley the Poet was writing a drama, with parts for a large chorus.

The 1930 Verse Contest and Festival continued from July 29 through July 31. The preliminary contest held at Oxford Tuesday morning was composed of three divisions—one division of thirteen gentlemen and two divisions with eleven ladies in each.

From these three divisions, speakers were chosen to speak in semi-finals in the afternoon; and from these, speakers were chosen for the finals on the same night, when the decision of the judges was announced. The judges sat at the foot of the stage around a long table with pencil and paper at hand,—all poets or lovers of poetry,—Lawrence Binyon, Sir Montague Burrows, Gordon Bottomley, Constance Masefield, John Masefield, and Henry Nevinson.

I have a letter which I have recently received from Mrs. Masefield concerning some of the high points of the event, which reads as follows:

"The competition lasted only one day. The other two days, held in our Music Room, were festival and we invited the speakers. They were mostly (but not all) winners in previous competitions.

"The competition was open to any one of any nationality of either sex. Only the first fifty applicants were admitted. The winners were a London lady and a Somersetshire man. We revise the rules every year. In 1931, I do not think we are going to have any competition at all, but we hope to have more days of verse.

"The poems we chose for the competition were:

"Part of the Purcell Commemoration Ode,"
by Robert Bridges.
"Felix Randel,"
by Manly Hopkins.
"Christmas Eve,"
by Robert Bridges."

On Wednesday morning, the second day, the Verse Festival began at "Hill Crest." Poems were spoken from the poetic works

of William Blake and Gordon Bottomley with two dramatic scenes. The poems were mostly lyric.

On the second night there were examples of Stories in Verse from the poems of John Masefield, William Morris, Gordon Bottomley, Lawrence Binyon, Gilbert Murray and from the Odyssey, and Paradise Lost.

Thursday morning's series of poems was divided into two parts. Part I comprised poems by John Milton—"The Star that Bids" from "Comus"; "Lycidas," "L'Allegro," "Il Penseroso" and others of like character from Milton.

Six speakers seated in a semi-circle on the stage with the narrator's place in the center, presented "The Council of Fiends" from "Paradise Lost," Book II,—each speaker in turn rising to speak the lines of Mammon, Belial, Moloch, Beelzebub, Satan, and the Narrator's part.

Part II embraced poems by Lawrence Binyon, with a scene from Milton's "Paradise Lost," Book XII with Adam and Eve and the Angel. Thursday evening at eight o'clock brought to a close the 1930 Verse Festival with the climax of the Iliad translated and arranged by Ronald Watkins. The speakers were seated upon the stage, with no attempt at dramatic effect by any special lighting or theatric costume,—their purpose seemingly to carry over the thought by means of the human voice.

The last evening was the supreme test of the occasion. The visitors knew the program would be lengthy and in many points difficult in sustaining undivided interest, yet long before the opening hour, throngs poured out from Oxford, from London and from near and far. The Audience Room was packed, with every inch of standing room occupied. The stillness of the audience and the rapt attention seemed almost beyond comprehension. The speakers themselves seemed to be under high nervous tension, and credit alike was due speakers and audience. In all of the speaking, the Poet Laureate stood within the wings of the stage, at the speakers' right, with prompt book in hand and followed every line spoken.

One of the speakers told me that in each rehearsal he followed every word and was able to prompt instantly at the slightest inclination to falter.

In my close observation of the speech of those participating in the Verse Festival, I recognized two view points. There were some

who spoke the verses in a chanting manner—with no inflection and no attempt at vocal interpretation. The idea in mind seemed to be not to permit the speaker's personality to come between the poet's thought and the audience.

There was a second type of speech from a different point of view. This was a natural conversational tone, with inflection, pause, and change of pitch. There was facial expression but no gestures of the hand or any attitudes.

Later during the summer, I heard it stated by Professor J. C. Firth while I was in his classes in University College, University of London, that there were two distinct schools of Speech in England, —one holding that verse should be chanted, and the other that it should be interpreted from the speaker's view-point.

May I quote from an article appearing in the November 1930 issue of the QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH under the title "Miss Elsie Fogerty visits the United States"? "Miss Fogerty stated that a great deal of credit for arousing and maintaining an active interest in Speech in England is due to Mr. and Mrs. John Masefield who have for several years sponsored the now famous Oxford Poetry Reading Contest." As Head of the Central School of Speech Training and Dramatic Art of London, Miss Fogerty's influence is felt in the cultured speech of a large number of the speakers appearing.

While I was studying in London this summer in the classes of Professors Daniel Jones, Ida Ward, and Walter Ripman, I heard the work of Miss Fogerty's school praised in the highest measure by the professors and students.

In the light of the estimate placed upon the effect upon the speech of England by the Oxford Verse Speaking Contest and Festival and by like impressions received by visitors from America and many nationalities,—as a National Speech Association, may we pause and ask what definite efforts are being made in America to promote the speaking and reading of fine poetry?

Recognized English and American authorities have said that the best method of training the speaking voice is by the speaking of lyrical poetry. Shall we leave the fate of Verse Speaking and Reading to the mercy of the average college student, who is privileged to elect a course in Poetry as a matter of duty,—as a credit leading to his college degree? Or to the grammar school child who

perhaps reads tediously every passage of literature in his Grade Reader, assigned for the day?

Would it be possible for Speech Departments so to glorify the reading and speaking of poetry that students will feel the same pride in interpreting through the human voice the poet's thought, that the sculptor feels in chiselling the angel from the rough stone quarry?

And is it possible so to develop a sensitiveness in the response of an audience in listening to verse speaking that those who make up the audience may say like the French, "I assisted at a concert" instead of saying "I attended a coneert"?

If our United States of America may be so committed to the glorifying of poetry through public platform recitals, through the curricula of college, high school, and grammar grade, through talking picture and radio, perhaps after seven years of endeavor, like the Oxford Verse Speaking Contest and Festival, we may also be able to say, as the Poet Laureate of England made answer when asked what results have been achieved:

"Perhaps the chief result has been that some hundreds of people have discovered how intense a pleasure listening to poetry can be. An audience has been made. People have begun to learn how to listen."

THE SCHOOLS AND GOOD SPEECH*

WILLIAM J. BOGAN
Superintendent of Schools, Chicago

LAST summer I met a famous Scotchman, head of a great department store in Glasgow and so impressed was I by his beautiful enunciation, pronunciation, diction and musical voice that I ventured to ask this question in the hope of securing from him valuable information that might be used in our schools, "Do you find our American language much different from the British language?"

With a glint in his eye he said, "I do notice some differences."

"Please name one to satisfy my curiosity."

* Delivered at Convention of NATIONAL ASSOCIATION, Chicago, December 30, 1930 and broadcast from Mandel Hall, University of Chicago.

Said he, "The most astounding difference that I think of now is your pronunciation of the word "yes.' "

I was puzzled by this statement and asked for deails. He gave the following:

"The Britisher says 'yes' but the American says 'yeah', 'yuh', 'yup', 'ja', 'uhhuh', and other peculiar modifications of the word. But I should not criticise Americans. We have faults enough of our own. I'm not a teacher but I am interested in good speech habits. Perhaps you can point out some defect in British English that I may correct in my employes. We might try the 'hands across the sea idea' or make what you Americans call 'a fifty-fifty split,' don't you know."

"Very well," said I. "The idea is an excellent one. My brief experiences with languages in Europe last summer may help. With a life-long knowledge of American English and a meager knowledge of French and German, I was able to make myself understood and was able to understand fairly well in France, Holland, Germany, Switzerland, Italy and Ireland. In fact the best English I heard was in Dublin. The worst was in London. The Londoners seemed to understand *me* fairly well but bus men, street car conductors, railroad men and clerks talked a language unknown to me. To illustrate my difficulty: When I asked in the Selfridge Department Store for a felt hat that would match my two suits, a blue and a brown, the clerk to my great surprise said, 'You want a fone.' I said, 'No, I want a hat.' After much oral fencing, I discovered that the clerk was trying to tell me that I should buy a fawn colored hat to match the two suits."

"But," said the Glasgow man, "The London clerk was right. You did want a fone."

I ended the discussion with that snappy American retort, "Oh! yeah?"

These experiences indicate in slight degree the problem which the schools of the world must meet in their attempts to improve speech habits. In the United States the problems are many and serious because of the mixture of races from all parts of the world and the lack of pride in a borrowed language. In European countries the language is an important phase of nationality. Pride in the language is ofttimes an important aid in the rebuilding of nationalism. In the United States our great heritage of literature and

language, perhaps the greatest the world has ever known, is treated by a large part of our population lightly and even flippantly.

Upon the schools rests the task of instilling into the minds and hearts of the children a love for the language, a pride in accuracy, clarity, simplicity and force. The schools should develop a love for English literature in all the people. This can best be done in the class rooms by teachers who can read with feeling and expression. It can be done in the class room and on the school stage by pupils in the drama. Bernard Shaw has said that a group of amateur actors reading the parts in a Shakespearean play derive infinitely more benefit from their active participation than they would have received from witnessing Henry Irving's most famous company in the same play.

Great success has met the efforts of junior and senior high schools in promoting careful pronunciation, enunciation and tone quality through the spoken and acted drama. The senior high schools in particular have shown steady improvement in the presentation of their Drama work before school audiences and in city-wide contests for the Drama League cup and for Better American Speech prizes offered by clubs for the best American diction. Many of the teachers in elementary, junior and senior high schools have become members of Better Speech committees in order that they might bring to the schools the latest ideas for the improvement of speech. In some of the elementary schools daily attention is given to vocal exercises to promote better speech. Special teachers are employed in most of the cities of this country to correct serious speech defects. The teachers stress drill on the broad "a," the short "o" and the shortening of the guttural "r." The reading of beautiful poems and prose extracts aids in the development of good speech.

In all parts of the United States schools working for the improvement of special habits are guided by the following objectives: (1) fluent use of language for everyday needs; (2) fluency and accuracy of expression in conversation, narration, discussion, reports, directions and formal speech to an audience; (3) ability to pronounce and enunciate words in a forceful, pleasant voice.

In the attempt to reach these objectives the pupils are held to correct usage in all phases of school work, including athletics. They are encouraged to help one another. The schools of the nation are

trying to develop pride in correct speech and pride in the English language. Language is the best cement for unifying the many peoples of which the nation is composed. Good speech habits form an important constituent of this cement.

THE INTELLIGENCE OF HIGH SCHOOL DEBATERS

RICHARD N. THOMPSON
San Diego Army and Navy Academy
Pacific Beach, California

HAVING discovered as a result of an initial study that the intelligence of high school debaters appeared to be above the average, I determined to check my results on a larger scale to determine if they were accurate. For this purpose I used a questionnaire distributed throughout the chapters of the National Forensic League, of which I have been for three years a national officer.

This organization is a standard national honor society with about 300 chapters established in 70% of our states and evaluates debating by a series of points and degrees. Of the members of the N. F. L. at graduation

100% were holders of the degree of Merit or the equivalent of 10 points.
46% were holders of the degree of Honor or the equivalent of 30 points.
20% were holders of the degree of Excellence or the equivalent of 60 points.
11% were holders of the degree of Distinction or the equivalent of 100 points.

I received complete questionnaires from over 100 different debaters, 28 different schools and 15 different states so geographically distributed as to represent a broad geographical sampling.

The results showed that of the 100 debaters studied, only two were found to have a measured I. Q. of less than 100. One of these had a poor debating record, the other slightly better than medium.

Comparing these figures with the nation-wide results achieved in this same form of the Otis Test, by 15,715 pupils in the 12th grade, I found that the lowest test score of all but two of these debaters places them in the upper half of this national group, and

yet many of the debaters studied were not in the 12th grade, but in the 11th or 10th, and some in the 9th.

Dividing these debaters into three groups, I arranged them with the first comprising those who were holders of the degree of Distinction, a second taking in all those who were holders of the degree of Excellence, and a third being a combination of representatives of the Honor and Merit degrees. A result of this comparison showed a steadily increasing average I. Q. ranging from 117 to 121. The remaining figures are as follows:

	1st Group	2nd Group	3rd Group
IQ.	121	119	117
% debates won	64.	62	60.
English marks above 90	68.	50.	41.
% in upper quartile	95.	77.	62.
% in next highest quartile	4.6	17.5	38.
% yearly mark C or lower	4.6	12	22.2

These figures would seem to indicate that there is an increasing average intellectual endowment of those who attain a superior ranking in debate.

I then decided to divide these debaters according to their average I. Q.'s, into three approximately equal groups to see whether the percentage of debates won by each group would vary proportionately with their increased intelligence. The result was as follows:

	1st Group	2nd Group	3rd Group
Average I. Q.	129	124	121.5
% debates won	76.1	65.	65.
% English marks below 90	43.8	50.	50.
% in upper quartile	93.3	87.5	75.
% in 2nd quartile	6.7	12.5	18.8
% yearly mark C or lower	6.6	6.6	12.5

I then made one more threefold division of these debaters based upon their comparative success or ranking in winning decision debates. The high group was made up of those who had been in 8 or more debates, winning over two-thirds of them; the middle group having a slightly better than 50% record; and the last group had lost more debates than they had won. The figures for the groups were:

	1st Group	2nd Group	3rd Group
Average I. Q.	**122.7**	**118.6**	**115**
% debates won	82.3	55.3	37.7
Eng. marks 90 plus	45.5	43.	40.
Eng. marks B—90	54.5	57.	60.
% in first quartile	100.	71.4	75.
% yearly marks 90 plus	45.5	33.3	20.
% yearly marks B	54.5	66.7	80.

While these results are not as extensive as I might wish, in conjunction with my former work, they prove fairly positively that:

1. Successful debaters can seldom be picked from the lower half of the class, or with an average I. Q. much below 117.

2. Generally speaking, the higher the I. Q. the better brand of debating.

3. In general, the better the success of a debating team, the higher their intelligence.

It would seem from this study that in most cases a debate coach might well limit his initially picked squads to those having an I. Q. of 117 or better if he is working for victories for his school.

I quote, in closing, from two interesting letters received in the course of my investigation. They are cumulative in force.

"The three debaters whose papers are enclosed are all high honor students, that is, having an average in their studies of over 90%. All of our successful debaters have been taken from our students who have ranked high. Beginning with 1913, Sanborn (Seminary) has won the championship of the state four times and has been in the finals three times more."

Another—"My experience in debating has been that only boys of high intelligence make good debaters. Hence, I always consult the intelligence test records before I select my team members. That we have won the conference championship in Oklahoma three years in succession is testimony sufficient to prove that point with me."

EDITORIAL

USE THE FORUM

Every since the memorable 1930 Convention in Chicago, rumors have been drifting about to the effect that the two factions which developed there still have between them issues of the most momentous consequence to our whole professional organization. Now and again the news *leaks out* that the embattled hosts still stand at Armageddon. On both sides, the combatants are very careful to say that the whole struggle is quite impersonal and that they are fighting solely for the integrity of the ASSOCIATION, for real democracy, or for what have you!

May the editor rise to remark mildly that at least ninety per cent of the members of our ASSOCIATION are still completely in the dark as to the fact that any great crusade for righteousness is going on and that most of the remaining ten per cent have only the very sketchiest conception of the alleged issues between the two contending hosts? If there is at stake some great principle of democracy versus autocracy in the management of our ASSOCIATION affairs, would it not be well to make the essential facts known to the rank and file of the profession? Is there not something paradoxical about battling quietly, not to say secretly, for democratic principles? Is not public discussion an essential process of democracy? So far, about the only technique of democratic government which has been called into play has been the whispering campaign.

We all want to know precisely *what* changes in ASSOCIATION management are being proposed by the reformers. We want to know *why* the changes are being urged. We want to know precisely what reasons (if any) can be given for rejecting these proposed changes. While we are being asked to save the ASSOCIATION, it might be well to ascertain whether or not the ASSOCIATION feels the need of salvation! Our committee on constitutional revision should do its work in the full light of day assisted by frank exressions of opinion from all those interested in the welfare of the organization.

For the second time, let the editor state unequivocally and emphatically that the pages of this JOURNAL, particularly those of the FORUM section, have been and are now open for full and free discussion of any and all problems which confront us. Why should we keep the matter dark any longer? Why not take the lid off and publish our honest opinions temperately, tolerantly, and impersonally? A good many of us teach the techniques of public discussion; how about practicing a bit of what we teach? *(Professor Williamson's paper published elsewhere in this issue was received after this editorial had been written. Perhaps no further call for manuscripts will now be necessary!)*

THE PROPOSITION FOR DEBATE

The following propositions have been discussed recently by College and University debating teams:

As now organized, the American Liberal Arts College cannot educate.

Learning does not play a significant part in the improvement of society.

There is no American culture.

The American home is decadent.

Salesmanship is the curse of the age.

Engineering is not a profession.

Emancipated woman is a curse.

Loyalty is the curse of the American college.

The happiest life is the urban life.

Scientists should take a ten year holiday.

The emergence of woman from the home is a depressing feature of modern life.

The modern young woman is unwomanly.

The predominance of the veteran is a regrettable feature of modern life. (How would this be for a N. A. T. S. Convention Program?)

Emotion has done more for the world than intellect.

What a list! Why not add Chic's Sale's favorite, *"Resolved that the zither is a nobler instrument than the saxophone."*

In many quarters, the persistent practice of debating propositions which, under any of our textbook criteria, are really undebatable, is looked upon with apprehension. We have to thank

our English friends from Cambridge and Oxford for what, in many cases, amounts to a prostitution of debating ideals and techniques. Some wise critics think that American College debating has been over-formalized. However, if we are going to abandon our traditional type of debating, we should do it with our eyes open. In its place, we should not blindly adopt an inferior brand of debating merely because it is novel. Of course, we can learn many worthwhile lessons from skilled English debaters; we can emulate some of their poise, ease, and fluency. But can we not do this without agreeing to discuss such propositions as are listed above and such other gems as: *"Foreign criticisms of America are unjustified,"* and *"This house pities its grandchildren"*?

The vaudeville performances which often ensue when we try to debate such propositions "in the English manner" (whatever that is!) bring debating into disrepute among thoughtful, serious-minded people both on and off the college campus. (It is difficult to pass over in silence the obvious disadvantage involved in supporting the Negative on such vague propositions as the foregoing. Yet the English visitors, notwithstanding their chance to practice their epigrammatic speeches over and over as they tour about, chivalrously announce that they will give their exhibition only on the Affirmative!) Debating is not inherently a strong competitor with vaudeville; we neither can nor should try to make it so. In the class room we teach our students how to select proper topics for debate and how to phrase propositions correctly. We should be careful not to nullify our instruction by allowing or, in some cases, even encouraging them to debate propositions which obviously violate the most elementary precepts which we ourselves have laid down.

WHAT IS OVER-EMPHASIS?

When we read that three or four thousand students at one university have entrained for a five hundred mile trip to another university for a football game of an Autumn Saturday afternoon, most of us feel that something about the athletic program is being over-emphasized. When football teams go junketing about the country from the Atlantic seaboard to Southern California, spending about half the time from the middle of September until New Year's day, giving spectacular shows each week, our academic

minds are sometimes a bit disturbed. When a state high school basketball tournament is held for a week at a time and each team of youngsters is playing twice a day during that period, it seems reasonably evident to some of us that high school basketball is being over-emphasized.

However, as usual, when it comes to this problem of over-emphasis on extracurricular activities, it makes a good deal of difference whose activities are being considered. Debate teams take trips to Europe, around the world, or in less extreme cases, transcontinental tours in which they are gone for weeks and meet thirty or forty other teams. The coach, who often accompanies the traveling team, is away from his class room while the great hegira is on. Sometimes small picked squads of the best performers start debating early in the fall and are at it until late in the spring. Some debate coaches have gone so far as to suggest that unless students are given a chance to participate in contests for some sort of forensic championship, they have been denied their birthright and have just cause for complaint. Long trips, unduly protracted seasons of competition, and championship tournaments, with the consequent restriction of training to the talented few at the expense of the needy many—these things are looked upon as unmistakable evidences of over-emphasis in athletics. But the same procedures are often condoned in the field of forensics. To the outsider looking in, the cases seem very similar whether in athletics or in forensics.

THE FORUM

THE GROUP FALLACY AGAIN

Editor of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

Once upon a time I read a story about "Jack the Giant Killer." The article entitled, "The Group Fallacy and Public Speaking" in the February number of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, recalls to my mind this fairy tale. My "one hundred foot tall" giant, like the proverbial "straw man" is erected that he may be hewn down; and the bigger you make them the harder they fall. Mr. Dickens climbs on the shoulders of Dr. F. H. Allport, and with one mighty swing, not of the sword of Excalibur, but with an everlasting fountain pen, my poor giant bites the dust and is quartered, nay more, decimated. All that now remains is to sprinkle a few ashes, sing the doxology, fold our tents like the scarabs and silently steal away. One more fallacy gone! What progress we are making! So thought Ptolemy, so thought Copernicus, so thought Newton, so thinks Einstein. But whether we create giants or pygmies some one is sure to come along with a better or newer design, and the old vanishes to confront us, perhaps, again in the distant future.

Personally, I had no intentions of creating any sort of monster. If some one sees a gigantic apparition in what was said, I must refer to it as a "figment of the mind" for in reality it isn't there. We refer to the term "crowd mind" to which Mr. Dickens has taken such a dislike. "This fallacy has been stated and *proved* by F. H. Allport in a succession of brilliant papers." If a thing has been proved that settles it; why argue further? In reading Dr. Allport I do not find that he claims to have proved very many things, his works are filled with "this theory," and "that hypothesis."

Call it what you will, "crowd mind," "group mind," "psychological crowd," or "an interplay of stimuli between individuals collected together in close proximity," or what have you, and it will smell as sweet.

It is not my intention to reply to this article in detail. We

observe certain phenomena and attempt an explanation. Each writer uses his own terminology, and surely, Plato has no copyright on metaphirs. But let us not create fictitious situations to prove our theory. For instance: Has anyone seen a mob ready to lynch a negro, and seen that crowd disperse, leaving two or three persons to complete the hanging?

Why is it necessary always to endow a "crowd" with the same characteristics? The psychologist speaks of the attributes of the individual mind, but does he infer thereby that every individual must possess the same characteristics? Hence, why *must* all groups of individuals possess the same reactions? And furthermore, what writer has ever said so?

We observe that a group of individuals when animated by a single purpose react differently than would a single individual in that group were he by himself or cut off from that group. The public speaker must appeal to these group characteristics if he would be successful. The arguments that would convince an individual might be very ineffective when spoken to a "collection of individuals." Hence the justification of enumerating the characteristics of the "crowd."

Again, "When the individuals in a crowd go away there is no crowd mind left;" therefore, there can be no "crowd mind." Q. E. D. Ipse dixit. With the same logic (?) why can we not assume that as the individual leaves there is no individual mind left haunting around; and thus prove that there is no individual mind? We recall the definitions of the Scotch Professor when a student asked him the questions, "What is mind?" and "What is matter?"

The objective idealist and the subjective materialist have through thousands of years wrangled over mind and matter. Can there be a mind without a nervous system? If a man die shall he live again? Is the music of an orchestra the same as the notes from individual players? Remove the instruments, is there any music left? Where is the music? in the instruments? in the vibrations of the air? in the players? or in the minds of the listeners? The certainties of youth will ever overshadow the skepticism of age. Whose philosophy solves the most riddles of the universe, Berkeley and Emerson, or Haeckel and Watson?

J. R. PELSMA, *Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg*

RESEARCH IN THE TEACHERS' COLLEGE

Editor of THE QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH:

That the teachers' colleges in the United States are emerging from their "normal school" era has evidence on every side. One important bit of evidence is the adoption of "standards for accrediting teachers' colleges" by the American Association of Teachers' Colleges. The term "teachers' college" is not merely a change in name for the purpose of appearing more academic and dignified. It represents, rather, a distinction between institutions granting a Bachelor's degree (usually in Education) and institutions with no such degree-granting powers.

When examined, these standards of accrediting are high. The movement is more and more toward requirements for advanced degrees of faculty members. That progress has been made in this respect is proved by a comparison of 1917 and 1926 figures, in a study reported by E. L. Hendricks.[1] Forty-eight institutions were examined—all teachers' colleges or normal schools. The per cent of faculty members with no degrees was reduced from 33 to 10; the Bachelor's degree remained the same (40); the per cent of Master's degrees rose from 22 to 43; and of Ph. D. degrees, an increase from 4 to 7 per cent.

With this sure progress, what are the teachers' colleges doing to meet their new academic position and prestige? If the M. A. and Ph. D. degrees represent scholarly achievements (as they should) what research work is being done in the teachers' college? If graduate students carry on their research work after they have completed their graduate study (as they should), what are those students who go into the teachers' college doing for research? More specifically, what are those graduate students in Speech who take positions in teachers' colleges, doing in research?

An interesting study in this connection was made by M. E. Haggerty, Dean of the College of Education, University of Minnesota. He compiled data showing the relative degree to which teachers' college faculties hold membership in national academic

[1] E. L. Hendricks: *Twenty Years of Progress in the Qualifications and Salaries of Teachers of Normal Schools and Teachers' Colleges.* National Education Association Proceedings, 1928, v. 66, pp. 920-931.

societies.[2] He found that of the men holding positions in various institutions, these were the percentages:

Teachers' colleges—1.64%
Small colleges—21.87%
State and municipal institutions—25.97%
Public schools—2.09%
Research institutions—4.48%.
Industrial and commercial institutions—2.17%
Miscellaneous—0.83%
Unknown—28.08%

It will readily be seen that the teachers' college, in comparison with these other institutions, fares rather badly. If membership in academic societies is any index to scholarship, then something is very much the matter with the teachers' college. Dean Haggerty makes this discriminating comment:

"Teacher-training institutions must become habitable by academic scholars. Let me hasten to say that by this I do not mean merely persons holding the degree of Master of Arts. Nor would I accept the doctorate as a guarantee of the thing I mean. All our institutions are inhabited—afflicted, I almost said—by the holders of such laudatory titles who are intellectually dead, and, as graduate work has developed in America, it has become possible for many persons to achieve the so-called higher degrees without ever acquiring genuine intellectual alertness—in some cases without ever feeling the thrill of intellectual discovery. I would not deny that such persons have a function to perform in colleges, and that a highly useful one. I am arguing here for a different type of individual for the colleges which educate teachers, for the man, who, quite regardless of the possession of collegiate degrees, still lives on the frontiers of the intellectual world, the man who is not merely a teacher of history, but who is a historian, who does not merely teach science, but who makes science. All of us know such men. Their habitat is not confined to any particular type of institution. I have known some in the smaller colleges and some in teachers' colleges. Their name is not legion, but they are priceless in any institution. Their value exceeds that of libraries, laboratories, and all our specialized technics of instruction. . . ."[3]

[2] M. E. Haggerty: *Whither the Teachers' Colleges in the Academic World?* National Education Association Proceedings, 1929, v. 67, p. 857.

[3] Ibid. p. 859-860.

As far as academic degrees are concerned, how does the teacher of Speech in teacher-training institutions compare with other teachers in the same institutions? A study of specific subject training was made by S. J. Phelps.[4] Of the per cent meeting undergraduate standards, 60.29% of teachers in all subjects met this requirement, but, in comparison with this, only 50% of the Speech teachers. (Twenty-four hours was taken as the norm.) Of the percent meeting the graduate standard: all subjects—32.84%; Speech, 8.33%. (Fifteen hours as the norm.) In other words, Speech teachers have six times the probability of meeting the under-graduate standards than of meeting the graduate, in comparison with but twice the probability in other subjects. Of the percent meeting the total standard, we find that teachers in all subjects represent 39%; in Speech, 25%. This is rather damning evidence against the preparation of Speech teachers in teachers' colleges, particularly in graduate work.

The QUARTERLY JOURNAL OF SPEECH, the official organ of Speech teachers in America, has contained several articles written by teachers in teachers' colleges, but many of these articles have been surveys and there has not been enough original thinking and scholarship in the field. There are probably several reasons for this. One is that teachers' colleges lack laboratory facilities, such as stroboscopic discs, manometric flames, dictaphones, radios, phonoscopes, laryngoscopes, and the like. An analogy can be made with the subject of Psychology in this respect. The teachers' colleges are not doing as good work in Psychology as they might chiefly because of the lack of laboratory equipment.

Then, too, the teaching load in the teachers' college has been notoriously heavy. When we compare the teaching load in the teachers' college with that in the college or university, we find a great disparity and inequality. Sixteen hours is regarded as the maximum load under the requirements laid down by the American Association of Teachers' Colleges, and many a teacher in teachers' colleges is teaching this maximum. When, in the field of Speech, we consider such extra-curricular activities as plays, debate, and the like, which are often assumed in addition to the heavy teaching

[4] Shelton J. Phelps: *Some Phases of the Training of Faculty Members of Teachers' Colleges.* National Education Association Proceedings, 1930, v. 68, p. 892.

load, we can see how this factor militates against the leisure time necessary for good research.

The teachers' college has naturally placed its emphasis upon teaching. Whereas this is laudable in itself, the day is coming, let us hope, when this emphasis will be shared by an equal emphasis upon research.

As Dean Haggerty points out, there is as much likelihood of finding a man of real intellectual interest in the teachers' college as any place. Teachers in the teachers' college, if they lack some of the tools of scholarship in the form of laboratory equipment, yet may have the mental attitude of research, the spirit of scholarship, the inquiring mind. And, of course, even in the absence of laboratory equipment, much valuable research work can be done.

Does one need to point out and reiterate what prominent psychologists have agreed is the most important time to train speech (as far as formal education is concerned)—in the elementary school? It is here that the speech habits are formed for good or bad, and it is here that the teachers' college can render its greatest service in research. As yet, we have not stressed very much the need for Speech work in the elementary grades. Whereas a very promising start has been made in secondary education, the field is still open in the elementary school. Professor Dolman, in his President's address at the convention last December, devoted a generous section of his speech to a consideration of the need to extend the activities of speech teachers and agencies for the improvement of training in Speech in the elementary school. We do not know very much about the speech of children in the elementary grades. Much valuable work has been done in story-telling, and there are any number of good books and collections on the subject. Speech correction has received some attention. But formal Speech training, as such, has received little stress. Elementary teachers are not trained in it, and, furthermore, they have not yet been made to realize its importance. Other subjects crowd Speech out. If but ten or fifteen minutes a day could be devoted to such training—say in enunciation, posture, breathing, and oral reading—it would be something. Blanton's two books, *Child Guildance* and *Speech Training for Children* are pioneer books, but more needs to be done. Oral reading is still not receiving its just emphasis in comparison with silent reading. Good books on speech correction have come

out, such as Barrows and Cordts' *The Teachers' Book of Phonetics,* and Birmingham and Krapp's *First Lessons in Speech Improvement,* but they are few and far between. But, above all, what is needed is some research on the problem. We still do not have a very great body of evidence.

In this important work to be done in this most important habit-forming period, the teachers' college must take the lead. Courses in Speech for prospective elementary school teachers are now being given in several teachers' colleges. These courses stress phonetics, speech correction, and story-telling. They are valuable courses and should be found in the curriculum of every teachers' college. If we can train the prospective elementary school teacher in methods and impress upon her (it is usually a "her") the extreme value of such Speech work, there is a brilliant future ahead for the teacher of Speech in the teachers' college. But, in addition, this Speech teacher needs to carry on research if for no other purpose than to make his training of these elementary teachers authentic. It can be done, it must be done.

RAYMOND H. BARNARD,
State Teachers' College, La Crosse, Wisconsin

NEW BOOKS

Speech and Voice. By G. Oscar Russell. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1931; pp. xvii, 250. $4.00.

The phonetician will find in this volume many new observations upon the characteristics of vowel sounds and the physiological aspects of their production. The student of speech sciences has here an orderly survey of controversial discussions on some persistent problems in voice production and new techniques for investigating them. Teachers of singing or speaking will meet some very significant criticisms of favored and popular "methods" in practice to-day, as well as suggestions for renovations of pedagogical plans of procedure.

The point of view from which Dr. Russell has attacked the problems is that of a combined physical and physiological study of how speaking and singing voices are produced. He says: "We propose to ascertain the forms and sizes of our speech and singing cavities; also the position and relative relationship of the various physiological organs as they actually appear when producing certain speaking and singing resultants." In seeking to meet the appalling need for "known physiological facts to take the place of present unsupported theory" he offers the results of some recent experiments with the X-ray apparatus which he has set up in his laboratory at Ohio State University. The data consists of "complete sets covering from ten to eighteen vowels for each one of a large number of individuals. These were chosen indiscriminately from more than four hundred subjects and from more than three thousand X-rays. The subjects include Spanish, Italian, English, French and German natives; men, women and children; varying in age from eight to sixty-five years; a soprano, a tenor and a baritone."

In order that the layman, unacquainted with the techniques for reading X-rays, may be able to get first hand knowledge from the photographs reproduced he has so masked them as to make the unessential part stand out whiter than the area involved in the

vowel cavity itself. Annotations on these photographs give further aid in identifying the physiological agents of speech production.

Before getting down to his fundamental problems: "How do we talk; how do we produce those subtle differences which distinguish our different vowels; and what makes the infinite variety of quality heard in the innumerable singing and speaking voices we hear?" the author gives a resumé of the history of such questions during recent attempts to answer them. Quotations from previous studies of phoneticians writing upon the problems to be discussed therein introduce the discussions of the author's experiments and greatly enrich the lively arguments developing around points of controversy. Most blessed to the novitiate in speech science will be the summaries of ascertained facts in acoustics of sound production and transmission, physiology and anatomy of the vocal mechanism, and psychology of the reception and interpretation of speech and voice. Here they are, expressed in terms the layman can not mistake!

After these preliminaries in Part I the author proposes a "new surface effect theory" in which he describes the effect of constriction in the lining of the walls of the resonating chambers upon the quality and pitch of the sounds produced. He states that his laryngo-periskop leaves no doubt but what one of the principal functions of the epiglottis is to alter pitch and voice quality in speaking and singing. A physiological change takes place during descending pitch which inveitably produces a "dampening" effect. The cushion of the epiglottis plays an important part in forming a very effective damper of the "soft curtain" type above the vibrating cords. Constriction in the larynx appears to produce "brilliancy" in tone; perhaps because "the friction of the air rush may set loose surfaces or saliva to vibrating; perhaps because the tensing of the walls may favor the high partials pursuit in the glottal complex."

The author believes that in the creation of at least certain "front" and "back" vowel and voice quality differences, vocal cord function and the surfaces and walls in the vocal cavities may be quite as important as the resonators or rather the total volume of air which they contain. These tonal quality differences may be sought in:

(1) the function of the interior larynx mechanism;
(2) the modification of those qualities producing partials and accompanying tones, brought about by the surfaces above (as they are varied in tension, aperture constriction, and amount exposed);
(3) the surface noises added;
(4) a sounding-board function bringing about a loudness which is so often falsely called "resonance."
(5) surface deadening, or the opposite of the loudness mentioned in point 4;
(6) the sometimes megaphone-like amplification or concentration of the sound which also makes for loudness just as does the sounding-board listed in point 4;
(7) the accentuation of one or two given overtones or their bands or the addition of the "formant" if you will, brought about by the total volume or air in the cavity.

Many cherished phrases and programs for improving the voices of pupils receive a sound thrashing at the hands of Dr. Russell. He prefaces his discussion with apologies from George Bernard Shaw: "In this world if you do not say a thing in an irritating way, you may just as well not say it at all, because people will not trouble themselves about anything that does not trouble them." Dr. Russell declares that there is no such thing as "placing a tone," "X-ray disproves opened and closed conception of vowels," "our traditional arching conceptions are erroneous." But he offers as a workable procedure the well-proven techniques of learning to listen, to identify the desired quality of tone and to seek to "imitate it by intelligent and diligent practice." He feels that "physiological pointers teach one to 'hear' so that he can imitate"; but "once habitualized the physiological process is forgotten and the student speaks with ease as well as accuracy."

Suggestions for using the X-ray photographs in teaching the deaf and in improving the speech of stammerers are essentially those of application of directions for manipulating the organs of speech so that they conform as nearly as possible to the action photograph of that sound.

Speech and Voice is a valuable addition to the equipment of the student of Speech; as much for its collections of current fact and opinion as for the unique, ingenious and enlightening techniques for studying the physiological reactions of the speech

mechanism. One wonders how much the complicated and uncomfortable apparatus distorts the picture of the reactions in progress. One can not but be intensely interested in the account of the experiments because of the easy, clear style of presentation as well as the significant character of the data obtained. The logical organization of the material, the informative paragraph titles, and the summary in the table of contents well adapt the volume for use as a class-room text in Speech and Voice Science, although one misses an index for use in the class room. In short, its advent is a significant event in the annals of Speech Training.

ELIZABETH D. MCDOWELL,
Teachers College, Columbia University

Prose, Poetry and Drama for Oral Interpretation. BY WILLIAM J. FARMA. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1930; pp. 526.

Few text books courageously depart from academic tradition to include the varied resources of contemporary writing. Mr. Farma's collection sets the standard for versatility. Its enthusiastic reception by students in the speech classes has been such as might have been afforded to a novel; they frankly approve and openly enjoy it. The book is a discovery of a lively group of authors who in active life are producers, poets, actors, critics—interesting people from many professions. With these in apt and wide selection are the perennially modern and well-remembered classic authors. There is no dearth in kind or illustration of literary material for oral interpretation. Such judgment as is conversant with the student's interest combined with a knowledge of his needs is evident in the choice and arrangement of the subject-matter. The charm of the collection lies in the freshness and the awareness of the content; in its balance and contrast of conservatism with sophistication, in range of humor with subtlety of beauty, in facetious emptiness with impelling dignity. In all, it holds a challenge for serious creative study. It offers a means of vicarious participation in diverse human experience through characterization and control of situation; a thoroughly sound and successful venture in speech education. To the teacher, it is a point of view, a new tool, a body of tested readings.

The classification according to form and suggested treatment is helpful; beginning as it does with a fine collection of long narra-

tives in good prose and poetry, then there is an adaptation of exceedingly interesting exposition to problems in delivery; this is followed by a most satisfying inclusion of types of poetry, and finally drama in such variety as is rarely brought by one book to a classroom: monologues, old and new; passages from Shakespeare, from modern plays, and finally three complete plays. Accompanying the text is a well conceived outline for a comprehensive beginning course. It includes the statement of a "general principle" for directed study, also an "incidental" aim with suggested material for attainment. The preface presents the author's objectives. He offers the content, the plan, and the bibliography for a spirited approach to the technique of reading and speaking.

The book is physically attractive as to binding and arrangement; it is generous in size; the print is clear and the pages are not crowded. Acceptable as it is inside and out, one could mention a few remediable defects. Abridgment has its values but in the case of public speeches, in particular, cutting frequently deprives the teacher of the swift and sure weapon for structural analysis. There could be more complete speeches. The book could do with a few footnotes, for instance, as to the pronunciation of unusual proper names where abridgment has destroyed the clue to the context. Again, in the single speeches of a character from a play, a brief statement of the situation would prove helpful to those who have not the full play at hand. Although the index is consistent with the classification, an alphabetical index should be added. No collection of material for oral study ever coincided in its entirety with the tastes of the individuals who use it. This one has little that does not interest, nothing that is without purpose. The content of a text for oral interpretation should possess not only the stability of the literature of the past but a discriminate knowledge and appreciation of that of the passing hour. It should bear in its design a consideration of the variable character of audiences as well as the abilities of students. Mr. Farma's book meets these demands with the ease of scholarship and conviction of actual experience.

MARGARET M. MCCARTHY, *Brooklyn College*

Voice and Speech. By M. R. Drennan. Capetown, South Africa: The Mercantile Press (A. W. Elford and Co., Ltd.), 1929; pp. 67, 5 shillings six-pence, post free.

From foreword by Professor F. Clarke, University of Capetown: "In the life of the world, for every word we are called upon to write, we speak a thousand....Yet how we were larruped (in school) for pardonable enterprises in orthography and allowed with impunity to murder speech in every syllable! More than three mistakes in English and you were in for it. Yet you could (and did) make more than three gross lapses of speech in the uttering of a single word and no withers were wrung. It was left to later life to teach you a more just sense of the relative importance of skilled performances; and if you happened to be a girl, otherwise attractive, and found yourself dubbed as 'charming till she opens her mouth,' the learning...might be painfully bitter and often horribly expensive.

"Every teacher is a teacher of speech, and none of his duties are of greater moment from the standpoint of his social function... What is needed is the same persistent effort *by all teachers alike* to secure standard speech as an effortless habit, that they make in secure standard spelling....It cannot be too strongly emphasized that *this is an expert's job*, not to be performed properly unless the teacher has command of the kind of knowledge which Professor Drennan offers....School has often intensified rather than diminished troubles by exalting the written over the spoken language and by concentrating on a grammar of form before it has paid any attention to the much more important grammar of intonation and accent."

From foreword by Professor H. Bell, University of Capetown: "One will hardly ever find two singing teachers who are in agreement upon...the correct method of breathing. And yet, when all is said and done, (and much more is usually said than done) the thing in its essence is, or should be, as simple as any other form of muscular activity....Professor Drennan gives simply and straight-forwardly an account of the anatomy of the organs.... The singing teacher, as well as the student, should be able to deduce a few simple facts that would guide him through all the tangle and confusion that besets the art of voice production."

From Preface by Author: "There is no more wonderful mechanism in the human body than that underlying the production of

voice and speech, those instruments which alone have made us human."

Only a man who knows a great deal can tell what he knows quickly. Only a master of style can so abjure style as to achieve its final essence, arrestive simplicity. Professor Drennan's style is a *tour de force* in startling inobtrusiveness, and he contrives to give a complete view of his enormously detailed subject in 67 pages.

Few have thought before this to say that the larynx has a skeleton and joints. Yet the concept is apt. "The larynx...consists of a skeleton formed by a number of cartilages, united together by membranes and joints, and acted upon by numerous delicate little muscles, which are under the influence of the nervous system."

Professor Drennan could scarcely be expected, in so short a work, to give an account of so many subjects as these: The Physical Properties of Sound, Voice and Speech Sounds, General Mechanism of the Body, The Mechanism of the Larynx, The Respiratory Mechanism of Speech, The Mechanism of the Ear, The Nervous Mechanism of Speech, Defects of Speech. Yet only the chapter on Defects of Speech is so cursory as to be regarded as merely introductory. The others are surprisingly complete, and invariably refreshing.

The drawings deserve special mention. Many a speech investigator has lamented that the peculiar self-enclosed three dimensionalism of the larynx almost defies representation in a two-dimensional form, whether by drawing, ordinary photograph, or X-ray photograph. Cross-sections seem to lose something of reality, and examination of a physical specimen itself involves practically destroying the specimen before learning its structure. Professor Drennan's drawings, usually full-view rather than cross-sectional, are completely interpretable, really more so than a cadaver specimen. Through them the "skeleton of the larynx," the "joints of the larynx," etc., become something more than a blurring Chinese puzzle. The same readability characterizes the drawings of those other complicated structures, the middle ear and the inner ear.

Within its range as a book by a teacher of anatomy on what might be called an interpretative anatomical view of the mechanism of voice and speech, Professor Drennan's work is uniquely valuable.

C. M. WISE, *Louisiana State University*

Projects in Speech for a Foundation Course. By Alan Houston Monroe and Paul Emerson Lull. New York: D. C. Heath and Co., 1931; pp. iii + 168.

How much theory would you teach if you were called upon to conduct a one-hour class in speech? What method of assignments would work best for a short course made up of technical students? How could high school students be motivated to the intelligent study of composition and delivery?

In the solution of problems such as these, where ordinary textbook and assignment would not be of great aid, nearly every teacher of speech will find helpful suggestions in this practical manual by two members of the Purdue staff. It is a book designed for the short, practical course in speaking, and is particularly adapted to those students who have little preliminary training or experience.

The authors have not attempted an exhaustive presentation of theory. To those of us who believe that a command of theory is essential to intelligent practice, that may not sound like a recommendation. Many texts have appeared which disclaim the intention of presenting theory completely, and upon perusal one suspects that the disclaimer is made to cover up a poverty of background and knowledge on the part of the authors. *Not so with this book.* Monroe and Lull demonstrate a thorough command of rhetorical theory and of the pedagogy of delivery. It is by condensation, selection, and elimination that they achieve the brevity of their discussions. In attaining brevity, moreover, they have not sacrificed concreteness. The textual material fairly bristles with definite suggestions and apt illustrations.

The book consists of four parts: (1) *The Search for Ideas;* (2) *The Communication of Simple Ideas;* (3) *The Development of the Complete Speech Plan;* and (4) *Participation in Group Discussion.* The appendices give a summary of the contents and a list of suggested speech topics. Each part is divided into six or seven *projects,* or assignments. For instance, Part Two, which deals largely with delivery, consists of the following: making ideas concrete, making ideas personal, vocal quality, vocal variety, correct and distinct utterance, the utility of gesture, and the mood behind the idea. Part Three consists of analysis of speech situations, analysis of subject matter, organization—the attention step, the

consideration step, and the action step, unity in the complete speech plan, and applications. Part One deals with observation, reading, and interviewing as means of getting material, and Part Four with group discussion, debate, and parliamentary law. Each assignment is stated as a problem to be solved, followed by suggestive comment containing the necessary theory, and finally by criticism sheets to be filled out by the student. These criticism sheets are adapted to the nature of each assignment, and thus tend to drive home the theory stated in the comment. The student is told *what to do*, and is given a method of checking his own work and the work of his classmates.

Finally, the text is interesting. Without sacrificing dignity or soundness, the authors have managed to make the study of theory attractive. Striking illustrations, incidents drawn from the everyday life of students, and pointed remarks stimulate the reader's attention. There is hardly a dry or uninteresting passage in the book. Since this degree of popularization is combined with theory that is essentially sound, and with a direct, systematic method of procedure, the result is a highly usable work. In the field of the short, practical course on the senior high school or college level, *Projects in Speech* will find an important place.

WILLIAM P. SANDFORD, *University of Illinois*

The Art of Directing Plays, BY D. C. ASHTON. Franklin, Ohio and Denver, Colorado: Eldridge Entertainment House, Inc., 1931; pp. 119, $1.50.

This book must be reported in somewhat mixed terms. It is necessary to state that its style is breezy and informal to a degree of ebullience and effervescence almost too Rotarian for scholarly calm; "'It All Depends on You, Mr. Director'," the author announces, with cheerful willingness, apparently, to burden his "Prologue" with the connotations of a very thin once-popular song. It is necessary further to state that the writing is faulty to a regrettable degree. "A Play having a good wholesome theme, coupled with good comic situations and character delineations are [sic] not rare to-day," the text asserts. Finally, there are in the book some amazing inaccuracies; e. g., "University of Iowa, under the direction of John Dolman,. . .Northwestern University School of Speech, under the direction of Ralph Thames,. . ."

But it is just to say that the book is for the most part packed full of sound, practical information which is evidently wrought out of the personal experience of an indefatigable, enthusiastic, and successful idealist. Setting aside a Belascan leaning toward realism rather unusual in our times, and a suggestion of some rather amusing fantastic advertising schemes, the successive "acts," as Mr. Ashton calls his chapters, follow the play production process through with a wealth of specific suggestions, and with a philosophical soundness that should commend them to any beginner. With books like Mr. Ashton's available, it is no longer necessary that young directors learn by the painful routine of trial and chance success what may be had in a convenient handbook. Even the experienced director can here find many surprising turns of tested practice that will refresh and stimulate him.

The play list is a bit diluted by the fact that the publishers have long purveyed numbers of rather undistinguished plays. One might venture that Mr. Ashton is not to blame for this feature of the book. In any event, there is a good list of excellent plays included as well.

C. M. WISE, *Louisiana State University*

Modern Speeches (Revised Edition). By HOMER D. LINDGREN. New York. F. S. Crofts Company, 1930; pp. xv, 514; $3.00.

Most of the speeches printed in the first edition of *Modern Speeches* are included in this revised edition and there are additions to the list. Among the new ones are speeches by Governor Ritchie, Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., Professor William Lyon Phelps, Mayor Walker, and Premier MacDonald. Governor Ritchie stands on the old Democratic platform, "More Business in Government and Less Government in Business"; Mr. Rockefeller speaks of "Character—the Foundation of Successful Business" and warms up the old platitudes; Professor Phelps' is a good example of a commencement address; and Mayor Walker welcomes Premier MacDonald, who replies. Mr. MacDonald's speech to the Senate is also printed. Job Hedges' speech for all occasions, which could be called "The Crisis," "Justice," "Solution," "Destiny," or "Rocks and Shoals," is certainly worth reading as an example of the use of words to obscure the absence of thought.

The speeches vary in quality, but perhaps the editor wanted to

include examples of both good and bad, although he does not label any of them. This reviewer would certainly have omitted the address of the late President Harding to the Daughters of the American Revolution in which he said such things as, "The Daughters of the Revolution have preserved for us all a lesson in the desirability of forbearance, patience and tolerance." The speeches are all new—almost all of them have been given since 1920—and the problem of choice is, therefore, harder.

Most of the speeches are too safe and sane to be representative of present-day American thought. We have here Judge Gary but not Norman Thomas; Charles Evans Hughes but not Clarence Darrow, and so on. Justice Brandeis, who may be called liberal, is represented here, but the speech is on "Business—a Profession." There are many significant contemporary speakers who are not included.

In would be helpful, in using the book, either to have the speeches arranged in alphabetical order under their respective divisions, or to have an index.

DAYTON D. MCKEAN, *Princeton University*

Language Development of the Preschool Child. By DOROTHEA A. MCCARTHY. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1930. pp. 174.

This volume contains one of the most exhaustive studies of the speech development of infants which has yet appeared. It includes a study and analysis of the speech of 140 children between the ages of 18 months and 54 months, studied under controlled conditions. A selection was made from a cross-section of urban population, on the basis of socio-occupational status of the families. Individuals were equated in age and sex groups, and relationships were found between age, sex, social status, intelligence, position in family, and playmates.

After a brief review of methods employed by previous investigators, the author presents her own method. She further compares her results with those found by Piaget at the Institute Rousseau, using his method to study egocentric speech, in which the auditor is disregarded; and socialized speech, in which the individual is addressed.

Under word analysis her coefficients of correlation were un-

usually high, in comparing consistency of children in using words of a certain length, with responses in larger categories. Her results gave a coefficient of + .85 even when results were checked by having ten percent of the records scored by three examiners. A table showing increase in comprehensibility of speech of the child from 18 months to 54 months is given, and length of response or number of words used is found to be significant, the most rapid increase being between the 18th and 42nd month, with a slower increase after the 42nd month. When analyzed in relation to paternal occupation, the children from Group I (professional background) showed considerable superiority over all the other occupational groups in precocity of linguistic development.

The importance of early environment and social stimulus in relation to speech development is one of the most striking things brought out in this study. Bilingualism in the home was not found to be a handicap either from the standpoint of length of sentences obtained or linguistic development. Its possible connection with speech handicaps such as wrong pronunciation or construction was not studied. Small but consistent sex differences in favor of girls were found for average length of response, and the differences seem to persist in spite of mental age grouping. Children associating chiefly with adults show a greater (mean) length of response than do those associated with other children. This fact is also rather surprising.

The author calls attention to a discrepancy between her results and those found by Piaget in regard to egocentric speech. She found very little speech which, according to Piaget's own definition, could be classed as egocentric, even in very young subjects. The first sentences of children were found to be about situations and things which have an emotional basis. This agrees with the findings of Yerkes, Boutan and others who have investigated the early cries of young chimpanzees in order to compare development of cries in animals with those made by human infants. "Questions" were found to increase with advance in chronological age most rapidly at the younger age levels. "Answers" show a steady increase with age, the largest proportion being among girls at six, of the age levels studied.

Appearance of phrases was studied as being an added complexity in sentence structure. The phrase first appears in girls at 24

months, and they maintain a fairly consistent superiority over the boys in the proportion of simple sentences with phrases, until at 54 month 8.8% of the total number of responses of boys, and 12.2% of those from the girls appear in this category. Elaborated sentences first appear among girls at 24 months and among boys at 36 months. By the 54th month such sentences comprise 4.3% of the total number of the boys' responses and 7.8% of the girl's responses. In upper age levels there is a decrease in the number of incomplete sentences in both sexes. There is a superiority of children of the upper occupational groups in completeness of sentence structure at the higher age levels.

The author's word analysis shows that the total number of words used by each child increases rapidly with age, starting with 20.3 words as the mean number of words for boys and girls at 18 months, and increasing to 230.5 words at 54 months. Adjectives almost double in relation to total number of words, from the 18th to the 54th month. As nouns begin to decrease in proportion to other words used, verbs show an increase of about 14 to 25%, with the age range. No marked sex differences appear in the use of different parts of speech. The sex differences found seem to correspond to the development cycle, as girls pass through this cycle more rapidly than boys, and a number of the earlier differences disappear with advance in age, in comparing boys with girls.

The author disagrees with Drever's theory that children from upper occupational groups have a larger percentage of nouns than those from the lower occupational groups. She finds the highest percentage of nouns used by children from the lower occupational groups, and that the smaller the percentage of nouns, the larger the percentage of other types of words used, the latter representing a superiority in language development.

To her review of theories of language origins in the latter part of her book the author might well have added Karl Bühler's theory of the three functions of language. i. e., effective, expressive and signifying functions, giving his interpretation of these, which is perhaps one of the most satisfactory theories which has appeared.

On the whole the book represents a distinct contribution to the literature of language development and methodology in analysis of data. Frequent distribution-tables, graphs, tabulations of coefficients of correlation between different variables, and a careful

experimental approach show that the author has supplemented theory with a wealth of objective data. One feels that here is found one of the most important analyses which have yet been made in the field of linguistic study.

SARA M. STINCHFIELD, *Mount Holyoke College*

Short Plays. BY EDWIN VAN B. KNICKERBOCKER. New York: Henry Holt, 1931; pp. 532.

Two or three years ago, little theatre directors were rather loftily saying that they were past the one-act play stage. Worshipping school directors echoed the dictum; and publishers, with their ears assiduously to the ground, sent personal letters along with the rejection slips to authors of one-acters, saying in effect that this form of literature was passé.

Happily all these prophets of despair were wrong. Happily all have forgotten their doleful prophecies, and the one-act play is enjoying a greater vogue of being played—and being published—than ever before. A recent survey of the high schools and colleges of Oklahoma reveals that from 6 to 50 one-act plays per school per year is the record in that state, and the reviewer knows of one university campus in a mid-west state where more than 100 one-act plays have been given during the current year. The publishers, ears still assiduously to the ground, are doing their part with an array of new one-act anthologies, of which Knickerbocker's *Short Plays* is an example.

All this is quite as it should be. One-act plays are necessary to school and community groups to a degree which no unconsciously snobbish dictum can counteract. One-act plays are conveniently short units for classroom study; they are relatively easy to rehearse and mount; they offer opportunity for large numbers of people to participate frequently; they supply to the young actor and the beginning actor a vehicle the emotional duration of which is not too long for him to sustain: lastly and looming very large, they furnish the only logical material for the universally prevalent and highly commendable play-tournament. We welcome the new anthologies, then, and predict that the market for them will be a long time in reaching saturation.

Mr. Knickerbocker's *Short Plays* is not exactly a new anthology, since it repeats four plays which appeared in his earlier *Plays*

for Classroom Interpretation. For that matter, there is no one of the sixteen plays that has not appeared elsewhere, either singly or in an anthology. But this fact becomes a virtue in view of the excellence of the selection. A volume containing a range from *The Florist Shop* to *The Valiant,* and from *The Man Who Married a Dumb Wife* to *The Gods of the Mountains,* commends itself for the perpetuation of tried and highly perfected plays, quite as another volume might commend itself by bringing new plays and new authors to light.

Mr. Knickerbocker has done a great deal of careful editing on his volume. There is a welcome vignette biography for each actor, notes where notes are in order, and some 89 pages of simple, direct, but exceedingly sound and reliable collateral material, distributed as follows:

What We Look for in a Play.
What We Mean by Reading and Studying a Play.
The General Nature of the Short Play.
The Elements of the Short Play.
Suggested Procedure for Studying a Play.
Preparing a Play for Public Performance.

Throughout all discussions, Mr. Knickerbocker recognizes something too frequently elided or neglected, the paramount importance of emotion in the structure and in the proper performance of any successful play.

Several of the plays in this book are by pupils of Professor George Pierce Baker, to whom the volume is very properly dedicated.

C. M. Wise, *Louisiana State University*

Stammering. By Elsie Fogerty, New York: E. P. Dutton and Co., 1930; pp. 64, $.95.

The cause of stammering is any one's oyster, even after the swordsmen of two thousand years have tried to open it. It is therefore entirely proper that the excellent principal of the Central School of Speech Training and Dramatic Art in London should have her try at it. "Stammering is a nervous trouble," she says. "There is some slight physical cause which determines the direction of the nervous breakdown, but this is not the true cause of the

stammer, although everything that helps to weaken the patient's control is of the very first importance."

Following these sound, if somewhat sketchy premises, Miss Fogerty quotes Adler in his findings that three types of children thus primarily affected nervously tend to stammer:

1. Delicate children who suffer from humiliating forms of illness which results in their feeling inferior through lack of popularity with their fellows, or through difficulty with their games or lessons.
2. Children who have been treated with conscious or unconscious cruelty, especially by way of unfavorable comparison with other children.
3. Pampered and spoiled children. In all cases of primary neurasthenia fear is a powerful influence toward stammering.

Once having established a theory as to the cause of stammering, and having defined it as a nervous trouble varying in intensity from a slight tendency to stick on certain letters and words to a convulsive inability to speak which affects almost the whole body, Miss Fogerty suggests and gives outlines for a very complete case history, etiology, diagnosis and prognosis for each individual patient. Then she proceeds to describe her curative methods, which, in brief, consist in a long and gradual series of relaxation exercises, correct breathing exercises, vocal drills and word-making plans and games.

The breathing exercises are to be regarded as very fundamental, for Miss Fogerty repeatedly states it as her belief that stammering is always accompanied by bad breathing. The talking exercises are pleasantly ingenious—a gossiping exercise, a going shopping exercise, a telephone exercise, a speaking-round-the-clock exercise, etc.

Seven rules recur frequently, repeated as a kind of catechism:

1. Always speak with chest full.
2. Always speak from the "press."
3. Always make a good voice in speaking.
4. Never worry about special words or letters.
5. Never be afraid to speak when you want to.
6. Never get excited when you speak.
7. Do the breathing practice every day.

Of course the curative exercises constitute what appears to be essentially a drill method of treatment. As such it is open to attack by those who consider drill a bad form of therapy. Elizabeth D. MacDowell, in the introduction to the book, observes that while some may oppose the drill method, those who approve of drills will agree that Miss Fogerty's drills are correctly conceived drills.

A closer examination of Miss Fogerty's book, however, should show that her method is not exclusively a drill method, but an eclectic method, relying upon many principles. At one time, e. g., the author recommends a word list test, resembling the Pressey X-O Test, designed to locate "complexes" or other causes for mental hygiene treatment. At another time she discusses the effects of sinistrality, etc., etc.

It is probable that this eclectic approach—this willingness to use any method that will work, accounts for the high percentage of Miss Fogerty's "cures." For it is axiomatic that all established methods "cure," in some cases. Perhaps the best value of this stock is, after all, its eclecticism. It is a good book for the average teacher, because it offers "something to do" in a clear, simple, and definite way.

C. M. WISE, *Louisiana State University*

Personality. By A. A. ROBACK. Cambridge, Mass.: Sci-Art Publishers, 1931: pp. 144.

The author describes this book as a "summary of the work and a description of the methods employed recently in the study of personality." Part I gives a short history of the concept of personality. It defines terms, analyzes personality types, discusses modern trends in the work, and points out some of the common methods of diagnosing personality. Part II discusses the possibility of changing a personality and offers some general suggestions as to how it can be done.

The discussion on these various subjects is scanty and much of it will be unsatisfactory to many readers. To give one example: In discussing the methods of diagnosing personality the author writes only of graphology or the analysis of hand-writing and apparently gives it his full approbation as the best single method available. The suggestions given for changing a personality are few and very general.

The book can easily be read in about two hours and is perhaps worth that amount of time although it cannot be said to be of any particular interest to students or teachers of speech. There is a helpful fifteen page bibliography at the end of the book.

CLAUDE KANTNER, *University of Wisconsin*

IN THE PERIODICALS

WE LEARN OF "DHJ FONETIK HERALD"

The QUARTERLY JOURNAL has received "VOL. II, Nr. 6" of "DHJ FONETIK HERALD," thereby learning of the existence of this journal. This issue of "DHJ FONETIK HERALD" consists of four mimeographed pages and states in its heading that it is "a bi-monthly circular devoted to spelling reform and pronunciation." An editorial adds that "its ultimate purpose remains—to turn the reformed spelling flock into the right road that can eventually lead to scientific phonetic spelling of the English language."

Since no alphabet is included in the current copy, it is impossible to comment accurately on the new system advocated. It would appear, however, that the editor (and, we assume, the inventor, Mr. F. S. Wingfield, 3267 Wrightwood Ave., Chicago, Ill.,) has endeavored to contrive a system applying specifically to English, and not requiring new characters in English type-fonts or on English typewriters. Accordingly, *c*, *q* and *x*, which are confessedly rather rattling about uselessly in the ordinary alphabet, are commandeered to represent (ɔ), (a) and (ŋ) respectively. Other letters are given more easily discoverable values, so that a sample of "fonetik speelix" reads thus:

> "No wan shud kqunt himself frendles hy iz widhin rjtsh v sam wrthhwquil buk. Hj hy rjmeinz blqind tu satsh frendship aez gud buks aeford rqbs himself v wan v lqifs hqiest priviledzhez. In tshyzix jdher a buk or a frend, wan shud—meik a wqiz nd laestix tsheis."

Phoneticians will at once express regret, one may guess, that Mr. Wingfield has used digraphs to represent single sounds; e. g., *ae* for (æ), th for (Θ), *dh* for (ð), *sh* for (ʃ), etc., and will question whether, if *s* equals the first sound in "sam," and *h* the first sound in "hqiest," *sh* could possibly represent any sound in "shud." They will doubtless lament, too, that Mr. Wingfield has not found a unique solution for that knotty problem which faces every hopeful inventor of an English spelling reform,—the prob-

lem of what to do with unstressed vowels. Doubtless Mr. Wingfield will be glad to discuss with all comers these questions and the many others which even the short sample above suggests.

Meanwhile, "DHJ FONETIK HERALD" is "25c dhj jir."

C. M. WISE, *Louisiana State University*

PLAIN TALKING

A sensible inquiry, without benefit of questionnaire, has just been completed by Miss Latham of Teachers College, Columbia University. Since many people are already involved and many of the high school generation will be drawn into work connected with radio, the talkies, television and, doubtless, political speaking, which goes on forever, a study of "audibility and distinctness in the speech of high school student" should be helpful. Miss Latham's study is intended primarily to help teachers, but its point of view is so fresh and its expression so clear and entertaining that her remarks are of general interest. Parents, especially, afflicted with the necessity for admonishing their children constantly to speak up, may find here something of practical value.

The source of Miss Latham's material is her own observation of pupils, teachers and superintendents. Her notions of teaching children to speak so they could be understood differed greatly from the methods she observed in general use. She took pains to investigate quietly and discovered that teachers specializing in speech improvement looked for and commended loudness over all other qualities. High-school teachers everywhere complained of the difficulty of getting audible recitations from their pupils, and the English teachers tried to remedy this by coaxing the children "to make their voices carry."

Persuasion, or the return to formal discipline, which has been tried in one school, has been found equally ineffective. Miss Latham gives several examples of situations bringing about vigorous utterance from children. She believes that such circumstances can be reproduced for the great benefit of oral class work. A boy on the school playground may, for example, give his fellows some rule of the game. He knows what the ruling is, he wants the other boys to know it, he is confident that he can get it over to them and he feels responsible for their understanding him. If these four factors can be duplicated in the classroom, the pupils will speak

plainly. First importance is rightly given to having something to say. The most deadening condition must be the child's knowledge that what he is saying is known equally well by his classmates. But if his assignment differs from all the others, he will have something to tell. In her own experience Miss Latham has found that variety of preparation sometimes leads to more audibility than the teacher can easily control, but overeagerness is much better than the usual feeling of no obligation to the rest of the class.

Editorial N. Y. *Times,* November 6, 1931

DALGETY, GEORGE S. *Chautauqua's Contribution to American Life.* Current History, Vol. XXXIV, No. 1, April, 1931, pp. 39-44.

"The traveling Chautauqua with its brown-topped tents had a full life but a comparatively short one." With this statement Mr. Dalgety opens an article in which he traces the rise and decline of the Chautauqua—that peculiar institution which "was considerably less highbrow than a university, but infinitely more intellectual than a circus."

The traveling Chautauqua was an outgrowth of two institutions—namely, the Lyceum Bureau founded by James Redpath in 1868 and the Summer study courses inaugurated at Lake Chautauqua by Bishop Vincent and Lewis Miller in 1873. In 1904 Keith Vawter combined the two ideas in his traveling Chautauquas. From 1906 until 1926 the movement was highly successful, reaching the climax, perhaps, during and immediately after the war.

Many facts contributed to the decline of the Chautauqua movement. Service clubs offered agencies for self-expression in community life; the Chautauqua programs became somewhat inferior; financial considerations assumed troublesome proportions; automobiles and good roads enabled individuals in otherwise isolated communities to make contact with the outside world.

The Chautauqua, Mr. Dalgety observes, was not permanent "because it arose out of a passing need."

> "It gave the people in good measure what they wanted and did what other agencies did not do—harnessed the best and took it to them, or at least close enough for the people to reach it. It catered to their isolation and made them see the outside world and feel that this social informative institution was the link which made them a part of that world. It was great in its

day. It brightened millions of otherwise drab lives. It introduced organized play to hundreds of thousands of youngsters. It was given credit for the change and advance in political thought throughout the Middle West. But whatever it was, its day is gone."

LESTER W. THONSSEN, *State University of Iowa*

SEASHORE, C. E.: *The Voice of the Child.* Childhood Education, 7, No. 6, February 1931, p. 286.

"The voice is an index to character. Everybody knows it, but very few people seem to care about it in the training of the child... Every normal child is capable of developing a pleasant speaking voice, and many of the physical abnormalities of nose, throat, teeth and lips which mar the voice may be corrected by simple operations....The child learns speech principally by imitation." His patterns are determined by patterns set in the home, for which the mother is largely responsible. However, the same thing is true of the teacher of the very young child, who has also a great opportunity and a great responsibility in the development of the child's speech. G. W. G.

Wisconsin Tests the Value of the Radio in the Classroom. School Life, Vol. XVI, No. 6, February 1931, 104-105.

The radio was used in the classroom in exercises involving both current events and musical appreciation. Tests were given afterwards. The results showed that the radio is highly successful in teaching music appreciation and in creating an interest in and understanding of current events. G. W. G.

BARNES, WALTER: *Language as Behavior.* Elementary English Review, 8, No. 2, February 1931, pp. 44ff.

This is the conclusion of a series of articles on the same topic. Language is stressed as a type of behavior, a social activity, to be participated in precisely as are other forms of activity. It should be evaluated with reference to the practical social outcomes, the "obtaining of results, the securing of effects." It is not a mystic, mysterious cult or fine art *(sic)*, but a set of behavior patterns, closely akin to all the other types of behavior pattern that make up the sum total of human existence. The point of view presented in the series is undoubtedly pertinent, and needs stressing among our contemporaries. G. W. G.

Creative Expression Through Dramatics: Progressive Education, Vol. 8, No. 1, January, 1931.

The entire January issue of Progressive Education is given over to some twenty-two articles on the general subject, *"Creative Expression through Dramatics."* Among the articles may be noted the following: Ericson, Helen: *"Nurturing Sincerity in Drama;"* Goodlander, Mabel R.: *"Puppets and Pantomimes;"* Smith, Milton: *Equipment for a Progressive School Theatre."*

The New Era in Home and School, Vol. 12, No. 51, March 1931, also has several articles of interest to Dramatics teachers in public schools. Edith Craig writes on *"Amateur Dramatics,"* Mary Cousins on *"Dramatic Work in Elementary Schools,"* P. Drummond Thompson on *"Drama in the Preparatory School,"* and Archibald Flower on *"Making Shakespeare Live."*

OJEMAN, R. H.: *Studies in Handedness. III.Relation of Handedness to Speech.* Journal of Educational Psychology, 22, February 1931, 120-130.

Twenty-three "dextrosinistrals" were studied. Several tests were given to discover the handedness of the subjects, and other tests to uncover possible speech defects.

Only two of the twenty-three showed speech defects at the time they were tested. Four had had some disturbance prior to the investigation. "In these cases no connection between the training in using the right hand for writing and the speech disturbance could be established. The remaining dextrosinistrals had developed no speech defect at any time....The data tend to show that in training a left-handed individual to write with the right hand, the handedness of the subject is not a sufficient condition to produce a speech disturbance....It appears to be the exception rather than the rule for a speech disturbance to be produced by training left-handed individuals to write with the right hand....An explanation which is based solely upon the neurological basis of handedness is therefore inadequate....The data presented in this study show...that under ordinary conditions the danger of producing a speech disturbance, after the speech habits have been formed, by training a left-handed child to write with the right hand is very slight."

G. W. G.

OATES, DAVID W.: *Left Handedness in Relation to Speech Defects, Intelligence and Achievement.* Forum of Education (London), 7, June 1929, 91-105.

Various tests, both uni-manual and bi-manual were given to 4,176 boys for types of sinistrality. These tests included writing, throwing, batting and sweeping. Eyedness was also studied. 5.4% of all subjects were left-handed. Three types of sinistrals and three types of dextrals were found, depending on whether all or only a part of the performances were left or right handed. Those performing all of the tests with the same hand were called "pure" types, those using one hand for some and the other hand for others were called "mixed" types.

Of the 4,176 subjects, in the pure types for handedness only, 2.01% suffered from speech defects, while in the mixed types, 11.8% so suffer. Ten cases of left handed children who had been taught to use the right hand in writing were found; four of these were left-eyed and six right-eyed, but in no instance was there a trace of speech defect or nervous disability.

The conclusions:

"(1) The distribution of sinistrality found agrees in general with the results of other distributions.

(2) If we neglect the dominant eye test and analysis of types of handedness, there is a higher percent of speech defects among the left-handed than among right-handed children, the proportion being four to one.

(3) Speech defects are six times as frequent in the mixed handedness as in the pure handedness groups.

(4) 'Crossing' definitely increased the tendency to speech defect.

(5) Nervous disability is two and one half times as frequent in the 'crossed' groups as in the 'pure' groups."

Further conclusions:

"(a) Individuals of pure types are more stable in nervous constitution than individuals of mixed types.

(b) The tendency to speech disturbance is fundamentally related to a departure from uni-laterality of function in the native organization of the nervous system which expresses itself in mixed handedness and crossing between eye and hand.

(c) While sinistrality is apparently not correlated with either

superiority or inferiority of intellect, marked departure from unilateral functioning is definitely related to complications in the nervous organization which may hinder the adjustments necessary for the attainment of school efficiency at the level of native ability."

G. W. G.

METFESSEL, MILTON: *Effect of the Removal of the Fundamental and Certain Overtones on Vocal Pitch and Quality.* Phychological Bulletin, 28, No. 3, March 1931, p. 212.

Using a technique involving acoustic filters, the fundamental and certain overtones were eliminated from vocal sounds, with results closely corresponding to those reported by Fletcher. The cause for the perception of the fundamental in the residual tone, however, is attributed to "the repetition to a wave form repeated with a frequency corresponding to the pitch heard. The filters changed the form of the wave." Fletcher indicates that the perception of the fundamental, in such cases, is due to the difference tone, which corresponds in frequency to the fundamental.

Nasality can be eliminated by the use of filters which attenuate those frequencies which nasal resonance amplifies. Thin voices of men can be made richer by decreasing the strength of the higher overtones. "Good voices remained acceptable with more overtones eliminated than poor voices, regardless of overtone frequencies."

G. W. G.

Mr. Arliss Makes a Speech. Atlantic Monthly, February 1931, 145-148.

The chief fault in speech, in America, according to Mr. Arliss is "sloppiness;" in England it is "snippiness." The chief difference between the English of England and that of America is the difference between the English of today and that of one hundred and fifty years ago. Many words of Old English are now regarded as Americanisms.

The English of England is distorted by people who ought to know better. The "Oxford accent" is readily distinguishable because it is not pure diction; it has certain distortions "for which there is no excuse."

The American "is so afraid of being meticulous in his speech that he allows himself to become careless." The value of the talk-

ing pictures in setting a standard of good diction cannot be overestimated; but it must be done without any obvious attempt to teach or correct. It will have to come about through imitation of the actors and actresses whom the young people admire.

Many of the plays on the screen today put a premium upon poor speech. Mr. Arliss expresses the hope and belief that the classic plays will be revived, and through them, a high standard of speech will be permitted, which will be examples of perfect diction. He recommends the making of some talking pictures which can be used in the schools and colleges as illustrations of perfect English and diction. G. W. G.

VIZETELLY, FRANK H.: *A Matter of Pronunciation.* Atlantic Monthly, February 1931, 148-151.

"Thought moulds the language that we speak, and exalts it or degrades it according to the degree of culture that we attain."

Our accepted standards of correct speech have as the foundation the pronunciation of those in each community who speak with clarity, accuracy, elegance and propriety. "They do not all speak in the same way. God be thanked that they could not if they would."

Mr. Vizetelly emphasizes the variety that has developed in our manner of utterance—and sees no cause for alarm or regret that such is the situation. But even with the poor quality of much American speech, we are not so bad off as the English, where the pronunciation varies with each new sovereign who ascends the throne. "The best people of England to-day talk with the cockney voice that, leaving the purlieus of Limehouse, has reached the purlieus of Mayfair."

With reference to the final "*r*" sound, the point is made that those races which habitually pronounce their "*r's*" are easily heard, while those who do not are inaudible—and, it might be added, often unintelligible. Mispronunciation in England is attributed to the influence of the Oxonian, who has debased the "coinage of English speech which emasculated voices and exaggerated idosyncrasies."

The standard of speech for New York, is in the opinion of Mr. Vizetelly, far superior to that of Pall Mall, St. James or Mayfair.

Even in London the standard varies in different districts just as much as it does in the city of New York.

Public speakers who face the microphone exhibit little or no preparation in the matter of pronunciation. Radio announcers in America have adopted one authority as their guide and have abided by it. But in England, the standard of pronunciation is "that of the individual himself." "Did not George Bernard Shaw tell us that there were 47,000,000 ways of pronuncing English in the United Kingdom? Indeed he did, and he meant it. There are more now, because the population has increased. . . ."

G. W. G.

BOWERS, CLAUDE G., *Woodrow Wilson: A Reappraisal.* Current History, Vol. xxxiv, No. I, April 1931, pp. 1-6.

Woodrow Wilson is coming back in public estimation; there is a noticeable reawakening of interest in the great war president who, incidentally, owed much of his power and influence to his ability to speak. Mr. Bowers makes a great deal of Wilson's ability to speak in his interesting article, telling of Wilson's study of speeches, his standards of speech composition, and his delivery. "He seldom spoke with passion, and yet so manifest was his sincerity that, as in the case of Bright, the average audience did not miss that 'calmness of white heat'."

As time corrects our perspective, Woodrow Wilson will, I think, come to be regarded as one of the great speakers of America, as well as a great president. We have not had many who were both.

DAYTON D. MCKEAN, *Princeton University*

NEWS AND NOTES

[Please send items intended for this department directly to Miss Lousene Rousseau, 49 East 33rd Street, New York City.]

A recent move by the Board of Education of New York City is of considerable significance for speech teachers; the Board has decided that students and teachers in the New York City schools must have good diction. Foreignisms, local dialects, class dialects, artificial pronunciations, and false intonations must be eradicated. A "*Prospectus of a Guide to the Teaching of Oral English Through the Use of Phonetics*" has been supplied to all teachers in the system, and the guide itself is to follow soon. All teaching of diction is to be based upon the International Phonetic Alphabet. Efforts are now being made to have New York's colleges and universities offer courses in phonetics so that teachers may secure adequate training.

The Bureau of Correction of Speech Defects and Disorders of California is a branch of the State Department of Education, and is carrying out an extensive program, under the direction of Mabel Farrington Gifford. Two field workers cover the state for the purpose of promoting the work and of persuading teachers to attend Summer Sessions to receive training. They likewise supervise teachers who are handling the work, conduct conferences with school officials and coordinating agencies, such as Boards of Health, nurses, doctors, behavior clinics, luncheon clubs, etc., where they sometimes conduct demonstrations.

Classes in speech correction have now been established in 33 school districts of California, where approximately 2 per cent of the school enrollment have some type of nervous speech disorder. Surveys in 65 other districts show 3½ per cent listed as nervous cases. San Francisco has speech classes in every public school. Los Angeles has eighteen full-time speech teachers.

Since November, 1929, children with speech defects are on the same basis as the physically handicapped child, and thus receive from the state the same reimbursement for the cost of their education as is given to the crippled, the deaf, and the blind. This sum amounts to $200.00 for each unit of average daily attendance, half paid by the state and half by the county.

Clinics have been established in a number of cities. One is in the San Quentin Prison, where the class instruction is both physiological and psychological, with the aim of building emotional control and self-possession. The results have been gratifying, and the work will be con-

tinued with the men after they are discharged from the prison. Another clinic will probably soon be installed in San Diego for men in the navy who are suffering from some speech defect.

California hopes before long to have speech training classes for every city, and union districts for rural communities. This work will be conducted in cooperation with Medical Departments, Public Health Clinics, and other institutions for child welfare, and with psychiatric social workers and Child Guidance Clinics.

The Eastern Public Speaking Conference for 1931 was held at Smith College Friday and Saturday, April 10 and 11. The following programs were scheduled:

FRIDAY

MORNING SESSION—GENERAL

Address----------Dean Marjorie Nicholson, Smith College
"Present Outlook for Speech Education"----------
----------Azubah J. Latham, Columbia University

AFTERNOON SESSION

ORAL INTERPRETATION

Edith W. Moses, Wellesley College, Chairman
"The High School Approach"----------
----------Mrs. Olive G. Burch, Hunter College High School
"Courses in Oral Interpretation in Eastern colleges" ----------
----------Frank E. Brown, Dartmouth College
E. L. Hunt, Swarthmore College
W. S. Howell, Harvard and Radcliffe
W. M. Parrish, University of Pittsburgh
"The Intercollegiate Poetry Reading"-----Vera A. Sickles, Smith College
"The Verse Speaking Choir"----------
----------Dr. Virginia Sanderson, San Jose State College, California

PUBLIC SPEAKING AND DEBATE

A. B. Williamson, New York University, Chairman
"Public Speaking Rating-Scales as a Method of Research"--------
----------Walter H. Wilke, New York University
"Teaching Argumentation"----------R. H. Wagner, Cornell University
"Can Public Speaking be Taught by Correspondence?"--------
----------Arthur Riley, Columbia University
"Public Speaking and Public Opinion"----------
----------Dayton D. MacKean, Princeton University

DRAMATICS AND THE STUDENT

Frederick Packard, Harvard University, Chairman
Discussion on the general topics of Aims and Methods, led by Mrs. Letitia Raubicheck, New York City; Curtis Canfield, Amherst College; Albert Lovejoy, Cambridge School of the Drama; Moroni Olson, Leland Powers School.

SPEECH PROBLEMS

Jane Bliss Taylor, Hunter College, Chairman

"Speech Correction for the Blind"----------
----------Mary Ruth Bierman, New York Institute for the Education of the Blind

"Medial *t* and *d* in American Speech"-------Cary F. Jacob, Smith College

"Speech Correction in New York City High School"----------
----------Mary E. Cramer, Hunter College High School

"Speech Disorders, their Cause and Treatment"--------
----------Smiley Blanton, Vassar College

SATURDAY

SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Mrs. Letitia Raubicheck, Chairman

"Vitalizing the Teaching of Speech in High Schools"----------
----------George W. Norvell, Supervisor of English, University of the State of New York

"Techniques in Teaching Phonetics for Speech Improvement"---------
----------L. Adele Carll, Newton High School, New York

"Improving the Voice of the High School Student"----------
----------W. H. Kenney, Emerson School

"Dramatics in Secondary Education"----------
--------Francis McCabe, Roosevelt High School, Yonkers

"Correction of Lisping"----------
------Elizabeth McNamara, Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn

"Remedial Classes in the High Schools"----------
------Therese A. Dacey, Director of Speech Improvement, Boston

GENERAL SESSION

"Recent Developments in Speech Training"----------
----------Samuel D. Robbins, Boston University

"Speech and the Teacher of English"----------
----------Allan Abbott, Columbia University

The Michigan Public Speaking Conference was held at Ann Arbor on May first, preceding the fourteenth Annual State Championship Debate, which is conducted under the auspices of the University of Michigan. The following speakers were heard during the day:

Gladwin H. Lewis, Principal, Traverse City Junior High School: "The Major Problems of the High School Teacher of Speech."

Louis M. Eich, University of Michigan: "The Place of Interpretative Reading in Secondary Schools."

N. J. Weiss, Albion College: "The League Debate as a Preparation for College Work."

E. C. Mabie, University of Iowa: "Job Analysis for the Teacher of Speech."

Rupert L. Cortwright, College of the City of Detroit: "Michigan and the Secondary School Speech Curriculum."

The second Annual Meeting of the Department of Speech of the Oregon State Teachers' Association was held during the period of the Annual Convention of the association in Portland, December 29, 30, and 31, 1930. Professor Earl W. Wells, Oregon State College, presided. Miss Virginia Mason, Woodburn High School, acted as secretary.

The meeting this year was devoted principally to a report of the special committee on high school speech training. This committee, under the chairmanship of Miss Esther Hettinger, Marshfield High School, was appointed last year: (1) to ascertain the extent of speech training in the high schools of the state, and (2) to formulate a standard basic course in speech for secondary schools. Paul X. Knoll, Oregon State College, as a member of this committee, made a comprehensive survey of the high schools of the state; and his report at the meeting summarized the situation as it exists today, in respect to both curricular and extra-curricular speech work in the Oregon secondary schools. The results of the survey are to be published in the Oregon Education Journal. The committee further presented a number of detailed course outlines for high school work. Final action upon these, however, was deferred; and the committee is being continued for another year in order to make a further study of the problem.

The department unanimously adopted two resolutions, addressed to the superintendents and principals of the state,—one urging that school administrators hereafter, in organizing their staffs, give more consideration to the qualifications of elementary teachers in respect to the speech arts; and the other recommending that in the high school at least two terms of speech be offered, a required elementary course for freshmen or sophomores and an elective advanced course for juniors and seniors.

At the meeting this year plans were laid for a State Speech Conference, to be held in Portland during the spring. William G. Harrington, of the Franklin High School of Portland, was apointed chairman of the committee on arrangements. It is likely that this conference will result in the formation of a state association of teachers of speech.

A special meeting of the Executive Council of the N. A. T. S. was held in Madison, Wisconsin at the call of President Simon on May 9.

The Board of Directors and Committee Chairmen of the Indiana Association of Teachers of Speech held a dinner meeting at the Hotel Antlers in Indianapolis late in February. At this time the committee on dramatics was authorized to conduct a state radio drama contest. The Board likewise approved a plan for affiliation with the proposed Central States Speech Association, and appointed W. N. Brigance, of Wabash College, President of the Indiana Association, as the official Indiana representative.

An interesting debate was held recently between teams representing Yale University and the University of Arizona, upon the popular question of unemployment insurance. The debate was held at Tucson, and was en-

dorsed by the Tucson Chamber of Commerce, the Central Trades Council, and the Lions' Club, and the receipts were donated to the Organized Charities of Tucson for distribution of food to the destitute and needy of the city. The order of speakers, with their time limits, was somewhat unusual, and is worth noting. It was as follows:

Mr. Adams, Affirmative, Arizona, 7 minutes.
Mr. Scholten, Negative, Yale, 14 minutes.
Mr. Graves, Affirmative, 14 minutes.
Mr. Van Benschoten, Negative, 14 minutes.
Mr. Adams, Affirmative, 7 minutes.

The final debates of the Indiana High School Debating League were held at Manchester College on the 10th and 11th of April. Preceding the debate, coaches met to plan changes in League rules and to choose next year's question. The director of the League, George Beauchamp, of Manchester College, is studying this semester at the University of Michigan, returning to Manchester once a week to direct the activities of the college and of the Indiana League.

The class of 1899 at the University of Wisconsin has established an annual scholarship of $500.00 to be awarded to some student who has done distinguished work in forensics.

Forensic activities at Allegheny College have been extensive this year. Fourteen intercollegiate debates were scheduled, on three questions. Nine debates were given by Allegheny students over the radio station WLBW, and eight so-called "extension debates" were held before luncheon clubs and neighboring high schools. Donald C. Knapp is in charge of forensic activities at Allegheny.

The fifty-fourth annual contest of the Illinois Inter-Collegiate Oratorical Association was held at Monmouth College in February, with representatives from seven colleges participating. S. R. Toussaint was in charge of local arrangements.

Twenty-seven intercollegiate debates were scheduled for members of the Varsity squads of the University of South Dakota this year. Two of them were broadcast over station KUSD. Various types of debates were tried, some of them judged by single expert judges and others open-forum debates. Many of them were held before special audiences. D. C. Dickey is director of debate at South Dakota.

Twenty-five radio programs were given by faculty and students in Public Speaking during the current semester at the University of Illinois.

The forty-first annual contest of the Northern Oratorical League was held at the University of Wisconsin on Friday, May 8. The league is

composed of Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, Northwestern, Western Reserve, and Wisconsin.

DRAMATICS

The first state-wide contest in play production by radio was held in Indiana during April, with both high schools and colleges participating. The elimination contests continued during the entire month, with the finals, in the last week of April, broadcast over a mid-western hook-up on the National Broadcasting Company from their Chicago station. All contests were judged by boards of three critics selected by the Drama Committee of the Indiana Association of Teachers of Speech.

The famous war play, *Journey's End*, by R. C. Sherriff, was presented at Evansville College in April.

Shakespeare's *Much Ado About Nothing* was presented at Alabama College in April, under the direction of Walter H. Trumbauer.

Dramatic productions at De Pauw University during the past season have included *Pals First*, O'Neill's *Beyond the Horizon*, Pollock's *The Fool*, Ibsen's *Doll's House*, Barry's *Holiday*, and Drinkwater's *Mary Stuart*.

The Rehearsal Club of George Washington High School, New York City, has given performances of Euripides' *Medea* and Browning's *In a Balcony* during the past year. Membership in the club is open only to those who have had one or more of the courses in dramatics offered by the school. Mrs. Helen M. Kenney is director of the club.

The first production directed by Moroni Olsen at the Leland Powers School was *The Lilies of the Field*, by John Hastings Turner.

The Price of the Prairie, dramatized from Mrs. McCarter's novel of that name by E. D. Schonberger, was the play chosen by National Collegiate Players at the University of North Dakota for their annual performance in March.

At the College of the Pacific, a new dramatic institution has been established as an annual event. This is a Fine Arts Matinee, presenting original work from the campus. The program this year consisted of two one-act plays—*The Devil's Game*, by Robert Linn, and *Arabella Meets Three Princesses*, by Martha Pierce, of the English Department—a group of poetry interpretations, and a group of natural dances. William P. Hinsdale was in charge of the program.

The annual high school play of Pontiac High School, Michigan, was Jean Webster's *Daddy Long Legs*. Four performances were given in April, under the direction of W. N. Viola.